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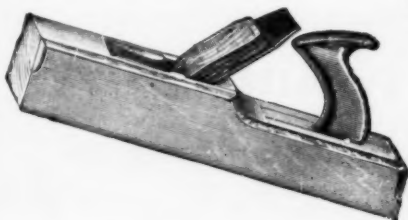
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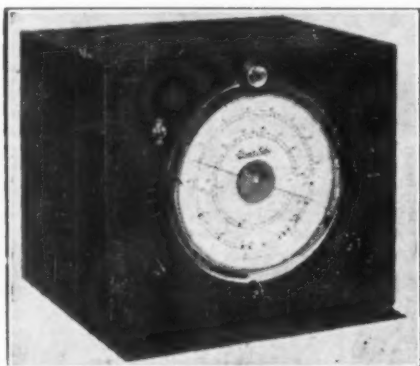
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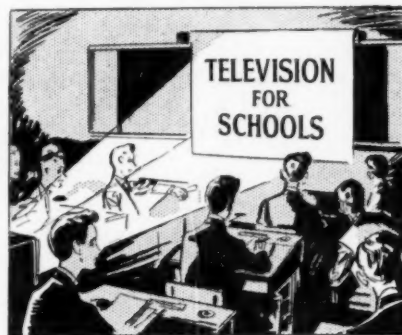
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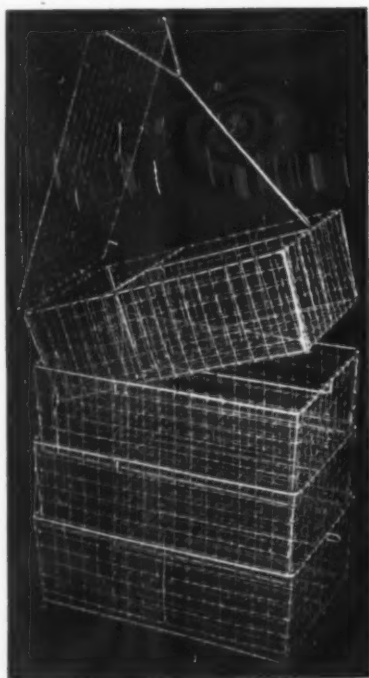
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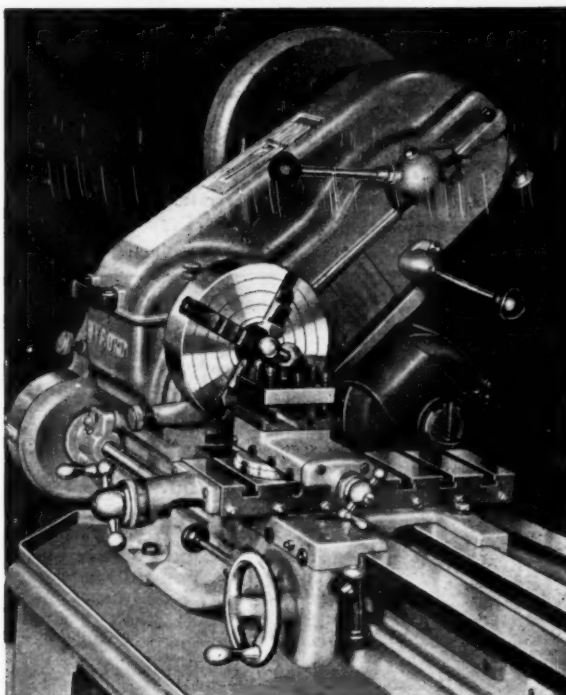
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The SCHOOL GOVERNMENT CHRONICLE

AN INDEPENDENT MONTHLY REVIEW OF EDUCATION.

No. 3,339. VOL. CXLVI.

OCTOBER, 1953

National Association of Divisional Executives Seventh Annual Conference

THE Seventh Annual Conference of the National Association of Divisional Executives for Education was held at Weston-super-Mare on September 23rd, 24th and 25th. The Conference was most generously welcomed by the Weston-super-Mare Corporation and two delightful receptions were held at the Winter Gardens Pavilion on the evening of September 22nd, at the invitation of the President Elect of the Association, Alderman T. W. R. Procter, F.C.I.S., F.L.A.A., and on September 23rd, at the invitation of His Worship the Mayor of Weston-super-Mare, Alderman D. H. Miller-Barstow, J.P., M.A. To the first of these receptions greetings were conveyed on behalf of the Association of Education Committees by the Vice-President, Alderman J. J. Panes, O.B.E., and from the National Union of Teachers by the President, Mr. Oliver Barnett, M.A., B.Sc.

The first business meeting was opened on Wednesday, September 23rd, by the Retiring President, Alderman J. H. Knaggs, J.P., C.A., and greetings were extended on behalf of the Corporation by His Worship the Mayor of Weston-super-Mare, Alderman D. H. Miller-Barstow, J.P., M.A. The results of the Election of Officers and Members of the Executive Committee for the year 1953-54 were announced as follows:

President: Alderman T. W. R. Procter, F.C.I.S., F.L.A.A.
Vice-President: County Alderman L. Heycock, J.P.
Imm. Past President: Alderman J. H. Knaggs, J.P., C.A.
Secretary: Dr. L. F. W. White, B.Sc., Barrister-at-Law.
Treasurer: Dr. J. Ewart Smart, O.B.E., M.C., M.A., B.Sc.

Members Elected to Represent Various Regions

REGION 1. North-Eastern England. Councillor Mrs. T. Todd, M.B.E., J.P., and Mr. P. Muir, M.A., B.Sc., M.Ed.

REGION 2. Yorkshire, West Riding. Alderman E. R. Hinchliffe and Mr. H. Thorpe.

REGION 3. Lancashire. Councillor W. J. Heal and Mr. A. B. Mills, B.Sc.

REGION 4. West Midlands. Alderman A. J. Pugh and Mr. H. L. Morris, B.A.

REGION 5. East Midlands. Alderman Mrs. E. E. Wainwright, O.B.E., J.P., and Lt.-Col. R. Heath Smith, O.B.E., B.Sc.

REGION 6. Eastern England. Alderman Mrs. J. Hammond, O.B.E., J.P., and Mr. J. Tillett, B.A.

REGION 7. South-Western England. Mr. H. W. Hale, B.Sc., and Mr. F. W. Blackburn, M.A.

REGION 8. South-Eastern England. Mr. H. Collinson and Mr. J. L. Smith, O.B.E., B.Sc.

REGION 9. Middlesex. Councillor T. J. Brennan and Mr. J. Compton, C.B.E., M.A.

REGION 10. Wales. County Alderman Wm. Evans, J.P., and Mr. Evan Davies, M.A.

Members Elected on a National Basis

Mrs. P. N. Paine, J.P., Mrs. O. A. Williams, J.P., M.A., The Rev. F. W. Jordan, Mr. J. H. Slatcher, M.B.E., B.A., Mr. S. C. A. Webb, LL.B., Barrister-at-Law.

Alderman T. W. R. Procter of Weston-super-Mare was installed as President of the Association for the year 1953-54 and treated the Conference to a highly topical and forthright Presidential Address, the full text of which is given elsewhere in this issue.

The Conference was privileged to hear a distinguished team of visiting speakers which included Professor W. J. M. Mackenzie, M.A., LL.B., Professor of Government and Administration, Manchester University, on "The Relations between Local and Central Government, with particular reference to the Service of Education"; Dr. C. F. Strong, O.B.E., M.A., on "The Teaching of History"; Mr. James Hemming, M.A., on "The Problems Created by Backwardness in Reading"; and by the Rev. Canon R. W. Stopford, C.B.E., D.C.L., M.A., on "Religious Education in Schools" (The text of these Addresses is given in following pages). A valuable innovation at this year's Conference was the opportunity given for general discussion following each of these Addresses, initiated by Resolutions submitted on behalf of the Executive of the Association.

Following Professor Mackenzie's Address, the following Resolution on "The Financing of the Education Service" was moved by Councillor T. J. Brennan, seconded by Mr. J. L. Smith, O.B.E., B.Sc., and carried.

"That this Conference is concerned at the problems which have been created by the rapid increase in the cost of education. It appreciates that with the much larger number of children entering the secondary schools during the next decade the cost will inevitably mount rapidly even if present standards, which are recognized as inadequate, are merely to be maintained. In particular it realizes that the cost which will fall on rate-borne expenditure will increasingly become a major part of local expenditure. It recommends therefore that a departmental committee should be established to review the financial relations between local education authorities and the State, so that whilst the conception of partnership is retained, the cost may be distributed as equitably as possible in the national interest."

The Executive Resolution following the Address by Mr. James Hemming was moved by Mr. J. Compton, C.B.E., M.A., and seconded by Mrs. O. Williams, J.P., M.A., in the following terms:

"That this Conference whilst deploring the exaggerated statements often made as to the extent of backwardness in reading in the country, is of the opinion that a great deal more research into the technique of teaching reading, especially in the junior and secondary stages of education,

is necessary if a higher standard of reading comprehension is to be achieved. Conference is also of the opinion that the achievement and maintenance of a high standard of spoken English is essential."

Following the Address by the Reverend Canon Stopford, the Resolution submitted by the Executive was as follows:

"That this Conference recognizes that Religious Education is a vital and creative element in our schools and of the highest importance in the lives of the children. It considers that the preparation of well-devised schemes of work and the provision of adequate courses on the content of Religious Education and its methods of teaching are essential. It therefore requests the Ministry of Education to establish a Committee for the purpose of examining the standards so far reached in Religious Instruction and to consider desirable methods for improving them."

Some twenty Resolutions were submitted for the consideration of Conference by individual Executives. The following were carried with very little discussion:

School Meals Service.—"That the Minister of Education be asked to reconsider the basis of financial costs and charges to parents of school meals having regard to the assurances given at the passing of the 1944 Education Act." Submitted by the Don Valley Divisional Executive, West Riding, Yorks.

Grants to Intending Teachers in Training.—"That because of the urgent need for teachers, and as it appears that potential entrants to Teacher Training Colleges are diverted from undertaking training because the method of

assessing the student's contribution to the cost of training requires the parent with moderate income to make too high an initial payment as compared with that required for entrants to Universities, Conference instructs the Executive to investigate this with a view to asking the Minister to improve both the method of assessment and the amount of financial assistance given to intending teachers." Submitted by the Medway Divisional Executive, Kent.

Burnham Scale—Special Allowances.—"That this Conference is deeply concerned with the effect of the Section in the Burnham Scale of Salaries for Teachers in Primary and Secondary Schools, relating to the award of Special Allowances. It considers that the operation of this Section in its present form is a cause of dissatisfaction between members of the teaching staffs in all types of schools and in some instances of dissension between teachers and Education Authorities. It urges the Burnham Committee to re-draft the provisions of the Section as to make its operation clearly perceptible and definite in application." Submitted by the Poole Exceeded District, Dorset.

School Building Programme.—"That this Conference is concerned at the present rate of school building and urges the Executive to press the appropriate authorities for a greater allocation of money, labour, and materials for this purpose, so that the time taken to provide and complete new schools may be more nearly related to the needs of the Education service." Submitted by the Thames-side Divisional Executive, Kent.

Purchase Tax on Educational Supplies.—"As the anticipated easement in Purchase Tax regulations so far as school materials are concerned did not figure in the recent Budget, now therefore this Conference urges that steps be taken finally to bring about some necessary adjustment." Submitted by the South-West Middlesex Divisional Executive.

School Holidays and the Educational Year.—"That this Conference urges the Minister of Education to call a conference representative of appropriate educational interests with a view to arranging earlier examination dates and such adjustment of school terms as would, *inter alia*, enable a staggering of industrial holidays to be more readily effected." Submitted by the Wembley Exceeded District, Middlesex.

Provision of Clothing—Special Schools.—"That this Conference considers the demands made by some boarding special schools for clothing outfits are extravagant, and calls on the A.E.C. to examine the matter with a view to the establishment of reasonable standards either by agreement or by regulation." Submitted by the Dover, Deal and District Divisional Executive, Kent.

Enforcement of School Attendance.—"In view of difficulties experienced by Committees in securing school attendance, Conference instructs the Executive to ask the Minister of Education to discuss with the appropriate Medical Authorities a procedure for the issue of a free Medical Certificate to parents in cases where the Authority requires proof of the bona-fides of a child's absence on medical grounds." Submitted by the Ilford Exceeded District, Essex.

Reduced Travel Facilities.—"That this Conference reaffirms the opinion expressed at the 4th, 5th and 6th Conferences in respect of the extension of half-fare travel rate for children of school age, and asks that this matter be given immediate attention and effect." Submitted by the South-West Middlesex Divisional Executive.

Conveyance of Pupils—Reduced Charges.—"That Conference requests the Executive to press for a reduction in the scholars' passenger fares, nationally." Submitted by Lancashire Divisional Executive No. 16.

State Primary Schools and Independent Schools—Curricula.—"That this Association would welcome some research into the comparative educational advantages of

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the differing types of curriculum generally provided in maintained primary schools on the one hand and private preparatory schools on the other for children of the same ages, abilities and aptitudes." Submitted by the Scarborough Divisional Executive, North Riding, Yorkshire.

The Place of Handwork in the Curriculum.—"That this Association would welcome further research into the questions of the effects of handwork in the education of children, and of the amount of school time which can, with advantage, be devoted to such activity without adverse effect on the fundamental teaching of essential subjects."—Submitted by the Scarborough Divisional Executive.

Television—Sponsored Programmes.—"That Conference, realizing the important influence of Television on the Domestic, Cultural and Moral Life of the Nation, expresses its strong disapproval of any form of Sponsored Programmes and urges the Executive to consult with other Educational Bodies in order to secure the highest possible standard in Television Programmes." Submitted by the Llanelly Divisional Executive, Carmarthenshire.

A Resolution dealing with Divisional Administration was withdrawn in its original form and an amended version was eventually carried as follows: "That this Conference re-affirms its opinion that under existing legislation Schemes of Divisional Administration now form an integral part of the educational system of the country and recommends the Executive vigorously to oppose any proposals which might weaken the scope and authority of Divisional Administration in the areas controlled by local education authorities."

The following Resolution on the School Meals Service, submitted by the Don Valley Divisional Executive, West Riding, Yorks., provoked the liveliest discussion of the Conference and was eventually defeated on a card vote by eighty votes to sixty-one: "That the recent increase to 9d. in the charge for school meals be deplored; that the attention of the Minister of Education be drawn to the number of children who have been deprived of the school meal in consequence, to their detriment, and that the effect of the increase is to nullify the benefits to many children of the School Meals Service."

A Resolution, submitted by the same Executive, relating to County Colleges was also lost on a card vote by seventy-eight votes to forty-four: "That the Executive of the Association be requested to consider the provision of County Colleges, since it is felt that this important feature of the 1944 Act should not be deferred indefinitely, in that the problems of Further Education for adolescents and the provision of continuous education facilities for school leavers will not be satisfactorily met until County Colleges have been established."

The Resolution "That this Conference expresses regret at the Government's action in curtailing expenditure on the provision of new schools and on improvements to existing schools for which there is a pressing need," submitted by the South-West Staffordshire Divisional Executive, was referred to the Executive for further consideration.

A Resolution dealing with Teaching Staff Appointments was introduced by Councillor J. C. Miller, Upper Agbrigg, in quite the most amusing contribution made by any delegate to the Conference, but, after some discussion, the Resolution was lost.

The following Resolution dealing with Withdrawal of Pupils from Grammar Schools was also lost: "That the problem of Grammar School Leavers and the question of the imposition of some penalty be reconsidered and the Minister of Education be again asked to introduce legal measures to enforce attendance at Secondary Grammar Schools until a pupil has finished the required Course."

One Resolution relating to School Holidays was withdrawn.

It was agreed that the Eighth Annual Conference should be held at Harrogate during September, 1954.

Teachers' Salaries

The two Panels of the Burnham (Main) Committee, under the Chairmanship of the Rt. Hon. Lord Percy, have now agreed to certain recommendations for new salary scales to operate from April 1st, 1954. These recommendations will be submitted to the Constituent Bodies of the Panels and, if they are accepted by them, they will then be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The main changes are:

Basic Scales for Qualified Assistant Teachers

	Men	Women
Present Scales	£415—£18—£670	£370—£15—£536
(including Special Addition from July 1st, 1952)		
Proposed New Scales	£450—£18—£725	£405—£15—£580

Unqualified and Temporary Teachers

The scales for Unqualified and Temporary teachers are also increased.

The total number of teachers affected by these changes is 230,000.

Graduate Addition

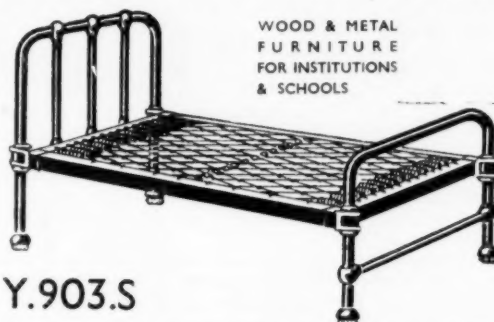
No change is recommended in the payment applicable to all Graduates. For a First Class Honours Degree an additional £30 (men) £24 (women) will be payable. Local education authorities will have the discretion to pay a similar amount to Second Class Honours Graduates. It is estimated that the number of First Class Honours Graduates in maintained schools is about 4,000.

Head Teachers

Head Teachers' Allowances are to be increased by amounts varying from £45 to £20, the larger amounts going to the smaller schools. These increases are additional to those in the new Basic Scales. The number of head teachers affected is over 28,000.

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Administration Must be Local

Says New President of Executives

The Presidential Address by ALDERMAN T. W. R. PROCTER, F.C.I.S., F.L.A.A.

This is our Seventh Annual Conference, and it is encouraging to know that a number of delegates present have followed our fortunes from the first and somewhat precarious meeting at Lowestoft, through Margate, Scarborough, Cheltenham, Torquay, Morecambe and now at Weston-super-Mare. There have been many outside who have predicted our early demise, usually without examining the reasons for our vitality. But there have been many more who have given of their time and talent, not in controversies on a national scale, but in the day-to-day work in the Committee Room—the power house of local government. Standing between the Ministry, the local official experts and those for whom the service of education exists—the general public—these lay members of over 200 Divisional Executives have brought to bear, not only upon the legislation of Parliament, but on Ministry circulars and the directives of local education authorities, the impact of local opinion. These local lay administrators, who know "what the traffic will bear," who combine a real enthusiasm for education with a deep understanding of the needs of their own particular community, make an essential contribution to our democratic way of life. The system of divisional administration means that throughout the country some 5,000 members are constantly at work relating what is one of the most human subjects of all government services to the needs and aspirations of the local area.

No praise is too high in these days of professionalism for the contribution which is quietly and effectively being made. It would be a tragedy indeed if such a contribution were sacrificed at a time when everything should be done to encourage men and women with a generous social outlook to place their ability at the disposal of the community.

It is at the committee room level that circulars and regulations have to be interpreted in terms of human aspirations and achievements, that statistics in a report become children in a class, that statements of costs have to be related to the actual income and expenditure of ordinary men and women.

Dangers of Centralization

This can never be achieved on the remote basis of Centralization. If an issue is to have real meaning locally it must be discussed in the local forum. The decisions must be made by the men and women who are not only aware of local opinion, but are responsible to the local community. This is the eternal problem of government, how at one and the same time to secure strong administrative units, and yet to ensure that they are related closely with the lives of ordinary men and women.

We all appreciate that modern administrative methods make it *apparently possible* to control a large organization over a wide area. It is a plausible story that nothing more is required than a remote directing centre with immediate contact with the local scene of activity. It is easy to say that the telephone gives immediate link between a County office and the most inaccessible school; that the duplicator provides an instrument for the speedy distribution of advice and directions; or that the motor car brings the official rapidly from the centre to the school. If this type of administrative efficiency were all that we needed there would be something to be said for the largest units, but the inevitable and ultimate consequence would be a regional structure. In no case would it remotely resemble what we understand by local government.

Apart indeed from the local government aspect, there are inherent dangers—as every large business undertaking has discovered—in centralization of this type. It becomes inevitably remote and detached. The larger the organization the less personal it is. This may be all right in dealing with units of electricity or tons of coal—it is all wrong in dealing with children, parents and teachers. Similarly such an organization becomes highly sectionalized, so that no one person can see problems as a whole. It is far too easy for a teacher to be broken down into a series of records—a number for salary calculation, a dossier for absences, a figure on a staff return—until the real personality is forgotten.

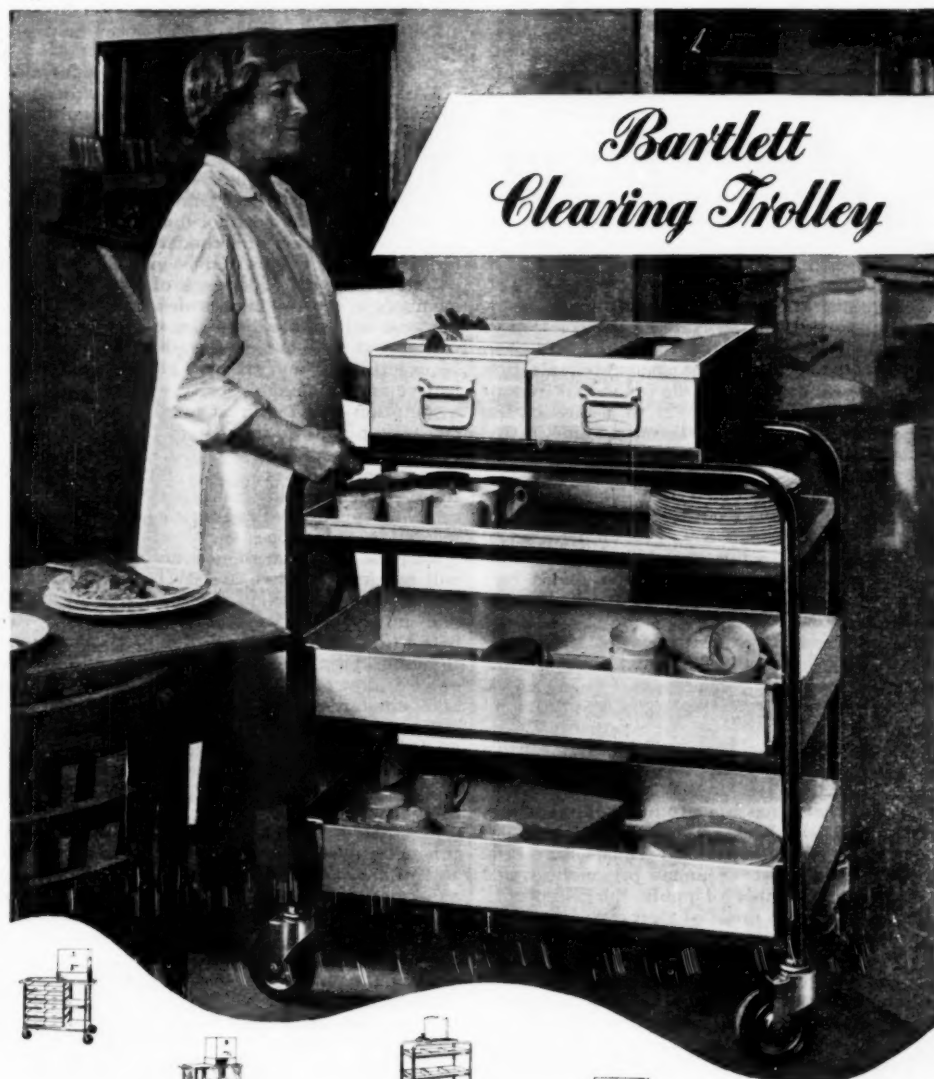
But enough of the dangers of Centralization. I am far more concerned with the positive promotion of local government as a service. I have always held the view, and never lose an opportunity to express it, that any action which tends to weaken real and effective local government is retrograde. It is not merely that we have to organize certain services on a local territorial basis; it is that we should deliberately create opportunities for effective contribution to local affairs. Local government develops with its exercise and is stifled where its opportunities are restricted. Nothing would contribute so much to the deterioration of democracy in the national sphere as the feeling that it had become ineffective and redundant on the local plane. Mere efficiency in administration of the large region is no substitute for a system which ensures the active participation of the civic-minded local citizen. Paternal government is never in the long run as good as responsible government. In this matter you cannot escape the challenge of history—that real government with its roots in freedom and liberty began in this country with small communities; it found its expression on the Manor, in the Borough and in the Parish, and the conception of democracy on a national scale grew out of the roots firmly established on a local soil.

Real Centre—The Local Community

No amount of regional organization dependent upon unwieldy apparatus of administrative techniques will prevent people from feeling that the real centre of their lives is in a local community whose ways they know and that to remove the opportunities of contributing an effective judgment upon the institutions which mould their lives is a denial of something quite fundamental. It would be better to sacrifice a bureaucratic machine rather than to destroy democratic institutions.

Far too little to-day is heard about the practice of democracy and the cultivation of democratic ways of life. Knowledge has become so departmentalized that we tend to think the expert is always right and to leave the conduct of affairs to the specialist planners. Yet when we are dealing with human personality the commonsense judgment of the lay mind is so often more dependable than that of the specialist. The recent quarterly bulletin issued by the United Nations Economic Commission comments thus on the plans of the experts: "Reality differed substantially from the planners' heaven." The "Economist," in quoting this report, says: "The tables which show forecasts matched against actual results are reminiscent of unsuccessful football pool coupons."

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that the judgment of the lay administrator who combines a real interest in the service of education with a deep and sympathetic appreciation of the circumstances and people of the locality is far more reliable than the carefully analysed material from a central office.

Of course we need the greatest amount of information to be available to us, but we do need it to be applied by people who know intimately the local circumstances. In the greatest political document of the 19th century (a book which ought to be the Bible of all who carry administrative responsibility)—"Essay on Liberty"—John Stuart Mill says, "I believe that the practical principle in which safety resides, the ideal to be kept in view, the standard by which to test, may be conveyed in these words—the greatest dissemination of power consistent with efficiency, but the greatest possible centralization of information and its diffusion from the centre."

Administration must be Local

It is the special purpose of the National Association of Divisional Executives to stand for this two-fold approach to administration: (1) to obtain the most efficient organization of the education service as it affects the individual lives of parents, children and teachers and (2) to secure in the process the maximum interest in the actual administrative processes by local people who have the welfare of the community at heart.

Any attempt to solve the problem of local government areas and functions must have regard to this fundamental principle—that if local government is to be vital, creative, flexible, and to offer real scope for disinterested civic service, it must work within local areas and afford real opportunities for local decisions. Otherwise it will cease to be local, it will fail to be democratic, and we shall be confronted with a hierarchy of experts imposing a beneficial service on apathetic recipients. And what is worse, the process will be effected by a semblance of democratic institutions which have no moral validity and are ultimately treated by experts and citizens alike with contempt.

It is perhaps partially true that Divisional Executive administration emerged in 1945 as a compromise and as a sop to the disgruntled Part III Authorities; it has become increasingly obvious that it has come to fulfil an important, indeed a vital role in educational administration. It has become the means by which generalized policies have been translated to show their effect on human personalities and by which a very large number of public-spirited people, with a real knowledge of the needs of their areas, can play their part in effective decision making—persons who for the most part would otherwise have been lost to local government. And as the functions of local government have been sapped in other directions by nationalization, rigid control by Government direction and the transference of power to the County Councils, so it becomes all the more vital to maintain and extend real local government in the service of education.

I have dealt with this at length because I am anxious to stress the point that our own Association is not merely concerned with the maintenance of a sectional interest. It is attempting to meet a real problem and one which must be met if democratic institutions are to be a reality.

The Association has always had in mind also the educational problems facing the country. We who are on the doorstep of the schools, who come into constant association with them as living entities, are anxious to make full contribution to the discussion of educational affairs. We doubt sometimes whether the Ministry of Education recognizes the wealth of information and experience which is available at that vital stage where administration makes an immediate impact on the schools.

During the last two years we, as your Executive, have made a number of studies of educational problems of immediate importance. We have been concerned to draw

attention to the recruitment of the teaching profession; to face the most serious problem of how to provide an adequate and professionally competent teaching staff for the vast numbers who will be entering Secondary education within the next three or four years. We do not believe that a solution to this problem has yet been found.

Organization of Secondary Education

We have also been deeply concerned with the organization of Secondary Modern education, to examine the ways in which Secondary Modern Schools can provide a full and effective education for all the children who attend and yet at the same time can meet the special needs of those who have only just missed the Grammar Schools. We have been impressed with the need for much further research into the proper organization of secondary education. It is particularly fortunate that all Divisional Executives, in addition to members with experience of local authorities, include members of the teaching profession and they have been of immense help in the discussion of our problems.

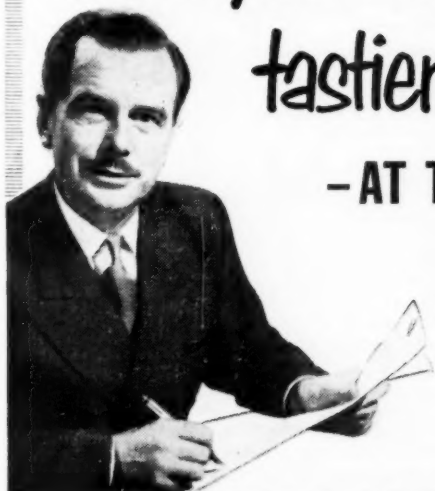
The next ten years in the education service are likely to be exacting. They will test all the resources of administrative and teaching capacity we have. There is a current assumption that the great bulge in population, due to the increased birth rate immediately after the war, is now past the infant school, that we must tolerate the problems it will produce in the junior schools, since little can be done in the time available, and that all our energies must be concentrated upon meeting the emergency which will arise in secondary education.

But the provision of new accommodation has left, and will continue to leave, a very large number of infant and junior schools, especially in rural areas, which are obsolete and, in some cases, insanitary. The recent Report of the Select Committee on the Estimates resolved into a political squabble, but there is no answer to the case that a very great deal of our educational provision is far below reasonable standards and that at some stage a completely new approach to the problem of school buildings will have to be made. Similarly we have tolerated and by force of circumstances we are still accepting in junior and infant schools standards of staffing which are completely inappropriate to modern methods of teaching.

It is not my intention to make anything but a passing reference to these vital educational matters. They raise the really fundamental issues as to the importance the community as a whole attaches to education and the extent to which it is prepared to allocate its resources to its development. It is true that the cost of education, as of all other things, has increased in recent years, but the extent to which the community has allocated financial resources to this fundamental service has changed very little. The time is coming when there must not merely be a reconsideration of the relative parts played in educational finance by rates and grants, but a comprehensive review of the place of education in our social life.

And in this connection I want to conclude with some words of Professor A. N. Whitehead, one of the greatest philosophers of modern times. Speaking on the aims of education, he said: "When one considers in its length and breadth the importance of this question of the education of a nation's young, the broken lives, the defeated hopes, the national failures, which result from the frivolous inertia with which it is treated, it is difficult to restrain within oneself a savage rage. In the conditions of modern life the rule is absolute, the race which does not value trained intelligence is doomed. Not all your heroism, nor your social charm, not all your wit, not all your victories on land or at sea, can move back the finger of fate. To-day we maintain ourselves. To-morrow science will have moved forward yet one more step and there will be no appeal from the judgment which will then be pronounced on the uneducated."

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Divisional Executives Conference

The Relations between Local and Central Government as they affect Education

By PROFESSOR W. J. M. MACKENZIE, M.A., LL.B., *Professor of Government and Administration, Manchester University.*

University teachers of public administration like myself take what opportunities we can to work in public administration, and to see to it that our knowledge is not mere book knowledge: but we can never know the details of practical business as well as the councillors and officials who work with them week after week throughout the year. In compensation, we are expected to take a wider view of the past and of the future than is possible for the working administrator, and that is what I will try to do.

Ever since 1939 there has been an atmosphere of crises about local government in England and Wales. First, there was the strain of evacuation and the blitz; then there was the period from 1942 to 1945 when all those who could not fight themselves felt bound to make plans for the better future which was to be gained by present sacrifices; then there was the active period of legislation from 1944 to 1949 in which, more by absence of mind than by deliberate intent, revolutionary changes were made in the structure of local government. My academic colleagues have done their part in drawing attention to the nature of this crisis, and much has been said and written about the anomalies of the present structure and the need for radical reform. Among these academic exercises I should be inclined to rank the famous Report of the Local Government Boundary Commission for 1947, a document of great brilliance of style and analysis, which was very little related to the circumstances of the time either in control or in local government.

The Crisis Remains

The times have changed, the crisis remains: nevertheless we are in a period of relative stability, in which we are inclined to take crises as a matter of course. After all, there has not been a period free from crises since the time in the 1830's when local democracy was first associated with Parliamentary democracy in the minds of English reformers. There were crises in the 1840's and 1850's about centralization under the old Poor Law Board and the first Board of Health—bodies really more formidable in their methods and intentions than any of our present Ministries. There was crisis in the 1870's about finance, in the 1880's about London government and about county government, at the beginning of this century about finance again; a financial crisis which passed without a break into the unemployment crisis of the 1920's, and the settlement of 1929, achieved only by the unwonted co-operation of two very powerful men, Mr. Churchill (as he then was) and Mr. Neville Chamberlain. These crises have not produced public excitement: there have been no riots, no strikes, not even dramatic general elections about crises affecting local government. Nevertheless, they have been keenly felt and urgently debated: local government has always been important in the background of English politics and it has also been given a foremost place in English democratic theory ever since the time of John Stuart Mill. It is therefore a subject which has stirred, and can still stir, quiet but deep feeling in the minds both of practical men and of philosophers. Its problems are of a kind which can never be finally resolved, because they are problems close to the heart of human government, but we may well be thankful that they are still real problems and that we are alive to them. Do not let us therefore lose the sense of a crisis in local government;

but let us remember that there never has been and never can be some thoroughgoing and clearcut solution which will end the crisis once for all.

Three Issues in Education

It is now obvious that there are some decisions about local government which must be taken by any government in office within the next few years. British Governments like to dodge great issues and radical solutions, but they are often forced to decide lesser issues piecemeal in a way which settles the future for a long time to come. It seems to me that there are at present three issues of this kind; highly technical issues, in which it is hard for the layman to grasp just what is involved, and yet of fundamental importance to local government and to the public system of education. These are (briefly) the future of the Exchequer Equalization Grant, the future of the main Education grant, and the development of delegation within Counties. Really important studies have been made recently of all these issues, and we may hope to have reasonably adequate information available when the time comes for decision.

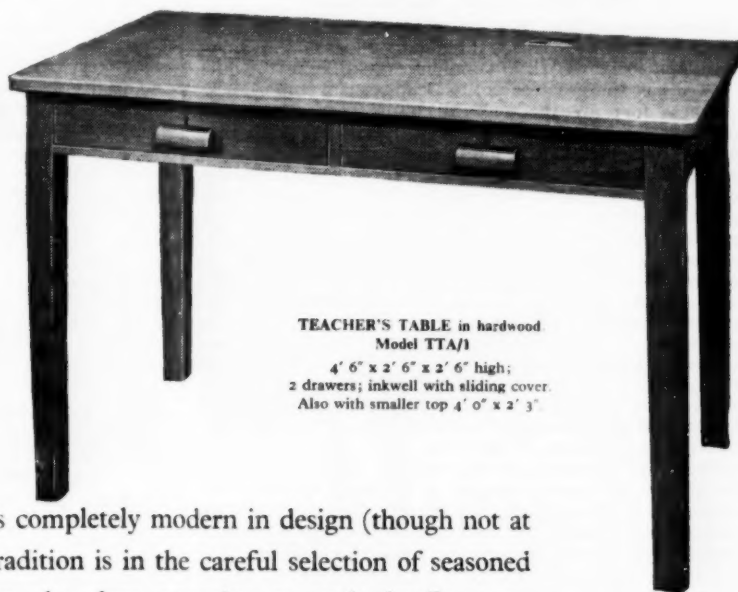
This is fortunate, because the time is likely to come fairly soon. 1956 is not very far off, and it seems inconceivable that we can go on beyond 1956 without new valuations for rating. It is easy enough to foresee that any revaluation will provoke a row; those whose pockets suffer are always more vocal than those who gain, and in the levelling process a large proportion will be worse off on paper, and perhaps in substance also. We are apt to forget now that valuation for rates was nationalized precisely so that a new settlement might be made about the grant system. Nationalization has proved a much longer and harder process than its sponsors expected, but when it is complete it is bound to raise for discussion all the issues which underlie the present Exchequer Equalization Grant. I think it would be out of place for me to raise these here, but I should like to speak a little more at length about the special position of Education.

Exchequer Equalization Grant and its Effects

This has recently been the subject of a very careful study by Mr. Woodham, the Deputy City Treasurer of Coventry, who was also chairman of a research group of the I.M.T.A. which reported on the Exchequer Equalization Grant and its effects. I am not competent to comment on Mr. Woodham's statistical conclusions, but he has brought into the open one issue which has been lost to sight. The main Education grant contains an element of weighting according to need, which has been in it for years, since long before the E.E.G. was thought of. Clearly this formula has never, been properly considered in relation to the E.E.G. formula, and their combination produces some odd results. If there is to be a reconsideration of the E.E.G. this will certainly involve also a consideration of the Education grant formula, and Mr. Woodham's study has initiated a very important debate.

Mr. Woodham has drawn attention to the effects of the grant as between different local authorities. There is no doubt that the present system also has very anomalous effects on the position of education within any authority which is a local education authority, and that these must be considered too.

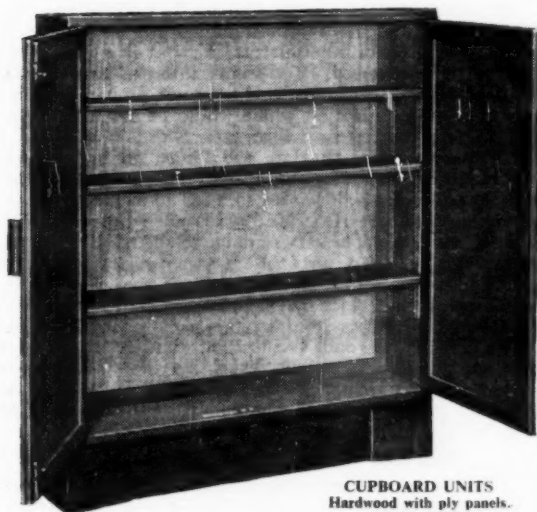
Tradition and the Table



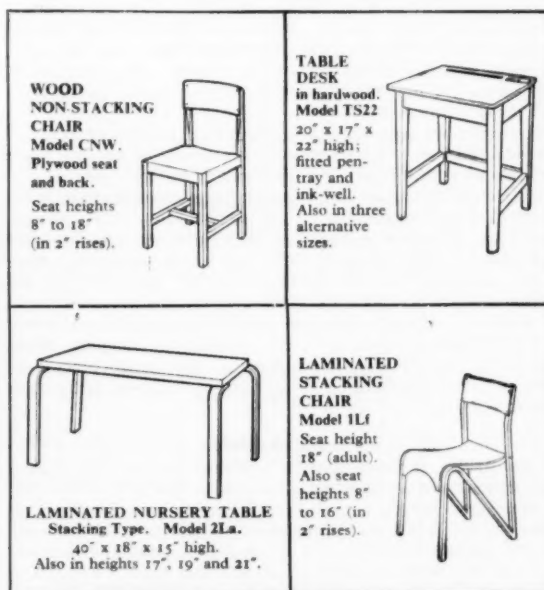
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Four Pillars of the Welfare State

There are now four great spending services in the social service section of the national budget: education, housing, health and social security. Opinions may differ as to which of these has the greatest political and social importance; but these four are the four pillars of the welfare state. Furthermore, they do not differ very widely in the share of the national effort which each of them absorbs. Education, housing and health are surprisingly close together, whether we measure by the money spent or by the people they employ. In the year to March, 1950, the last year for which there are complete figures, education and housing, capital and revenue expenditure together, cost about £280m. in England and Wales, and the National Health Service cost about £380m. Education employed about 220,000 teachers, to whom must be added perhaps as many more administrative and ancillary workers. The building labour force engaged on house building was about 230,000, to whom must be added many more in the manufacture of equipment for houses and in the Housing Departments of local authorities. The hospital service employed 310,000 people full time, and this takes no account of part-time employees or of those employed by Executive Councils and local health authorities. The pattern of social security is rather different; the number of people employed by the Ministries and by the Children and Welfare Departments of local authorities is comparatively small, perhaps 60,000—70,000 in all, but very large sums are distributed in cash benefits, nearly £600m. in 1949/50, and the sum continues to increase.

All these four great services affect intimately the lives and happiness of practically all citizens; what is more they are all in a very practical sense local services. Education and housing are still administered almost wholly by the traditional local authorities. Health and Social Security have in a sense been nationalized, but they are still highly local in their operation. This is recognized by the creation of new local bodies to run important parts of the health service; and by the fact that social security, in so far as it involves personal service and not merely cash benefits, is still largely a matter for the traditional local authorities and local voluntary services.

Yet when we look not at the national budget but at local budgets the four pillars begin to seem very lopsided. They rank about equal in national cost and in national priorities; in the revenue budgets of local authorities education is by far the most important. Still taking the 1950 figures, education absorbed nearly 40 per cent. of the revenue expenditure of local authorities, and the education main grant accounted for more than half of the total central grants to local authorities. The cost of the other services on revenue account were relatively trivial; on capital account housing had an even greater prominence than education has in revenue account—but capital account does not figure prominently in annual budgets or in rate demand notes.

Education Costs

The results of this situation are familiar to you. Local authorities have a great share in responsibility for all social services, and indeed for all local affairs; but there is now some danger that the ratepayers will begin to think of them as glorified school boards, or at least as primarily the arena of a contest between Education and the Rest. From this follow certain effects on the local financial control of Education. As you all know, about 50 per cent. of the budget of any Education Authority consists of teachers' salaries, and this is in effect beyond local control. The scale of salaries is centrally fixed; the number of teachers must in any case be increased to cope with the present influx of children into the schools, and the size of classes in many areas is already such that it would be unthinkable that we should let the situation get worse. The cost of teachers is bound to increase; the drive for economy is nowhere felt more

keenly than in local government; it falls therefore in particular on the other items in the education budget. These are made up of a multitude of small items, at first sight very diverse in character. But they all belong essentially to one of two categories: first, expenses on the decencies as distinct from the bare necessities of primary and secondary education—heating and lighting, painting and maintenance, classroom materials, clerical staff, facilities for games; second, expenses on anything beyond the school-leaving age—grants to students, county colleges, technical education, adult classes, community centres, and so on. The pressure falls on a small section of the budget for public education; it does not damage in any literal sense the fabric of the system, but it damages the character of the system. It tends to thrust it back into the atmosphere of poverty and social inferiority from which it is just emerging; children in new buildings do fairly well because equipment as well as buildings come out of capital, the rest are unlucky.

Something Wrong with the Machine

Please do not construe this as an attack on economy. On the contrary, I believe that the demand for economy is right; and I also believe that ratepayers and councillors are much more effective in securing economical administration than the House of Commons, the Treasury, the Auditor-General, and all the rather expensive machinery of national finance and central control. What disturbs me is that in this case two rights make a wrong. The proper instinct for economy, which is a right instinct, is bound in this case to press more heavily on education than on housing, on the health service, or on social security; and it is bound to press on education in such a way as to hamper that change in the public attitude to public education which is the first condition of reform in education. No one is acting wrongly, but the results are wrong; is there something wrong with the machine?

There is one solution simple enough in theory which we can rule out in practice. Explain to the ratepayer in more realistic terms what the present system of housing finance involves; increase local resources and return to local budgets a large measure of responsibility for the health service and for social security; and leave it to our finance committees to hold the balance even. I believe that this could be done, and that it would make for more economical and more democratic administration; but it is not on the agenda at the moment. Too many interests are opposed to it, and local government is clearly not prepared to face the sort of re-organization which would be needed to overcome this resistance.

It seems therefore that we are forced to look in the opposite direction; can the system be changed so that education does not loom quite so large on the back of the rate demand note? Here Mr. Woodham's proposal holds the field; a 100 per cent. grant on teachers' salaries and superannuation. To put the matter in over-simplified statistics; education absorbs about half the gross cost of local government, teachers' salaries are half the cost of education; shift this item to the national budget, and education will cost only a third of what is left to local government. Mr. Woodham puts this in a much more exact way, as a measure justified on financial grounds; we are bound to ask ourselves whether it is justified on wider grounds.

Teachers' Salaries a National Charge?

The advantages to educational policy are obvious, even if there is to be no net increase in the education grant: the disadvantages turn on the issue of the independence of local government. 100 per cent. grant for the cost of teachers means in effect that the teaching service becomes a national service, not a local one; local authorities may continue to appoint teachers, but only to posts on an establishment authorized by Whitehall. Is this fatal to local control of



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education? Personally I think not, for two reasons. One is that the tradition of co-operation between the Ministry of Education and local authorities is an old one and a friendly one. The Ministry is a very powerful body but it has not the instincts of dictatorship; sometimes we may think that it does not collectively know or care much about the system of local government, but it is certainly not inclined to add recklessly to its own responsibilities, as some bureaucratic organizations are. I believe that even under a 100 per cent. grant system it could be trusted to act reasonably, as on the whole it acts reasonably over school meals. The second point is that the teaching service is in a sense a nationalized service already; it has common standards of entry, training, salary and pensions, and it is closely organized on a national basis. Would it make much difference if the number of posts were also controlled formally from above? It is already subject to much outside influence; would a formal change matter, so long as the local authority through the appropriate body retained the right to advertise the post and to choose from among qualified applicants? I think not; and I think this solution is more favourable to autonomy than one which concentrates first on increasing the total grant in aid of education, whether by an increased percentage or by some other form of grant. But the issue is not a clear one, and the more debate and research there is the better, because it is almost impossible for any Government to avoid facing the issue in these next three years.

Delegation of Powers

There is another current question of first-rate importance to local government which is likely to be affected by your deliberations, and that is the question of delegation of powers by Counties to authorities within Counties.

Action in this field is not likely to depend on the initiative

of the central government. We read in the books about certain American states in which cities and counties have what is called "home rule"; within certain limits they can write their own charters and decide their own form of management. This is supposed to be a happy state quite beyond our reach; here (we are told) we have very rigid legal forms, which impose the same structure on units of local government which are very diverse in character. You know the familiar complaint that the same form of government is imposed on counties with populations ranging from 20,000 to 2½ million people, on county boroughs with populations from 27,000 to 1,100,000. There have been two important studies of delegation recently, one by Mr. Sampson, the County Treasurer of Staffordshire, and the other by Miss Cohen of the Institute of Public Administration, and they bring home to us that in this field at least the idea of rigidity is a myth. The Counties which they have investigated have in regard to delegation been writing their own charters as freely as any American county. Delegation may be bad or good; but in its actual operation it is a local invention and not a Whitehall invention. It is very unlikely that any Ministry has any comprehensive picture of the system of delegation except what it can derive from Mr. Sampson's book; and one lesson of that book is that we must be very cautious indeed in any generalizations we make about delegation. What is suitable for one county may be unworkable in different conditions. Even if two counties are generally similar in social and economic conditions, a system of delegation good in one may be bad in another, because of personal or political factors which cannot be ignored.

The Two-Tier System

Nevertheless, I must, to justify myself, here submit some generalizations even though they are rather platitudinous ones. The first is that this has suddenly become a key point in the structure of English local government because of the great gains in power made by the counties at the expense of the county districts. Counties (apart from the L.C.C.) rule more people than county boroughs, and they have almost as great powers. They are forced now to solve an administrative problem quite different from the problem of county boroughs; and it is a little hard to advocate the extension of the two-tier system until that problem has been solved. As one who works in Manchester, I have a special interest in the problem of the government of great conurbations; and I am bound to agree with the Boundary Commission that the next step logically is to adapt county government to urban conditions by organizing two-tier authorities for the great cities. But it is quite impossible to advocate this seriously as a reform for which we should make certain sacrifices unless there is good practical evidence that the two-tier system can be made to work really well in modern conditions. This is still an open question.

My second point is that your Association, and the Excepted Districts in particular, are in a position of special responsibility because Divisional Executives for Education are in a stronger position by statute than most intermediate bodies of this kind; they have a longer tradition; and they are better organized. Your decisions will be concerned primarily with educational policy; but they are bound also to be of first-rate importance in the development of local government in this country.

My last point is simply that this issue is not a new one in the field of administration. There are plenty of analogies to be found in the problems of the nationalized industries, such as coal and railways; or in the problems of big firms like Unilevers and I.C.I.; all varieties of big business face similar problems. Many English counties are big business, even by the standards of bigness to which we are accustomed in the modern world, and they cannot be run from a single office. But decentralization always faces a dilemma; shall it be decentralization to separate units for each service,



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or decentralization to single units for all services? A series of different divisions chosen separately for the convenience of each service? Or a single set of divisions, which may prove a little awkward for each separate service? The former is easier to arrange, but in the end it leads back to centralization, because it is never possible for any two services to come together locally and settle their own local problems. Indeed this pattern of administration will in the end destroy the idea of two-tier government entirely. A Borough Council or District Council cannot effectively survive if it is no more than an electoral college which sends people to sit on a variety of disconnected bodies meeting in different centres and for different purposes. This sort of scheme may seem simple at County Hall, but it is quite unintelligible to a local electorate. The tradition of looking to your local councillor for advice is still strong, but it cannot stand up indefinitely in face of bewilderment of this kind. It is much harder to find true local units in which the main delegated functions can be brought together; Mr. Sampson's list embraces health, education, town and country planning, civil defence, children, and welfare, and it is not going to be easy anywhere to find a single set of areas capable of exercising power in all the fields. Probably the Excepted Districts come closest to this ideal in most counties. Is their position tolerable? If not, how can it be made so, short of the surgical operation involved in the grant of county borough status? And is it possible to build on this experience so that we have in the end a really strong system of two-tier government in the larger counties? These are rather large questions, but the present debate between counties and county boroughs is meaningless until we have made some progress in resolving them.

Mr. S. L. Chamberlain (Newcastle-upon-Tyne) has been appointed Director of Education for the Solomon Islands.

British Film Institute Summer School

Among the leading lecturers at the Tenth Summer Film School of the British Film Institute which took place in Glasgow and Edinburgh this year were Orson Welles, whose statement that "the cinema is dying—dying—dying" has received wide publicity, and Charles Frend, director of "The Cruel Sea."

As last year the first week of the course was spent at the Scottish Film Council's Studio Theatre in Glasgow and consisted of an intensive week of lectures and film shows under the direction of Stanley Reed and John Huntley of the Film Institute. This was followed by a second week in Edinburgh which coincided with the opening week of the Edinburgh Festival.

An enjoyable feature of the course was its international aspect—Norway, Egypt, U.S.A., Brazil, Holland, France, Canada, South Africa, and Algeria, were all represented and one of the most successful evenings was that on which some of the overseas students gave accounts of film development in their own countries. Roger Manvell presided over this evening at the invitation of the Institute.

Among other guest lecturers were Basil Wright, whose film made with Paul Rotha "World Without End" was one of the events of the Festival, Carl Foreman the American screen writer responsible for "High Noon" and "The Men," Fred Majdalany of the *Daily Mail*, Mary Field, who presented excerpts from some of her recent children's films and John Laurie, who was celebrating his hundredth appearance in films and who opened the course with a lively and provocative lecture.

Denis Forman, Director of the Institute, lectured several times during the first week of the course and took the chair for guest lecturers during the Edinburgh week.

Tony Hodgkinson, recently appointed Film Appreciation

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Officer of the Film Institute, was present during the Edinburgh week. Education was well represented among the students, who included a number of training college lecturers and teachers.

In addition to lectures, the film shows of the Edinburgh Festival were attended by students as part of the course and although some disappointment was expressed at the general level of this year's entries, students were highly appreciative of the French films "Crin Blanc" and "Le Rideau Cramoisi." "Martin Luther," felt by the students to be an unhappy choice for the opening film of the Festival, nevertheless gave rise to considerable discussion in subsequent sessions.

One of the most enjoyable evenings at Edinburgh was devoted to discussion between Carl Foreman, who insisted that "the Director is on the way out" and will eventually be replaced by the writer as the principal creative figure in film making, and Charles Frend, who, as a Director, opposed this view point.

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Teachers for Secondary Schools

Minister of Education Discusses Steps to Meet Birth-Rate "Bulge."

The staffing needs of secondary schools when the post-war birth-rate "bulge" reaches them were discussed at Blackpool, last month, by Miss Florence Horsbrugh, the Minister of Education, who was addressing a meeting of the North-West Conservative Teachers' Association.

Though the number of Science and Mathematics graduates had slightly increased in each of the last two years, the present position was not satisfactory as regards either numbers or quality, said the Minister. The larger number of children soon to reach the secondary schools must always be remembered. The problem of finding mathematics and science teachers for them was a difficult one, especially as it involved the balance of competing national interests. It was at present being examined by the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers.

The position of Arts graduates was different; there was keen competition among them for teaching posts and also some unemployment. But the Minister thought that these difficulties would disappear when the secondary school population began to rise rapidly. Arts graduates would then be urgently required and increased numbers of them had to be trained in anticipation of that very need. She had asked local education authorities to employ such teachers in advance of requirements in order to ensure that they had enough arts graduates when this time came.

The National Advisory Council was also studying future requirements for the many different kinds of specialist teacher, including housecraft and handicraft, who would soon be needed in greater numbers.

The Minister said she hoped that as a result of all these inquiries a comprehensive picture would emerge in the next year or so of the need of the secondary schools up to about 1960 when the numbers of children in these schools would reach their peak. This would enable plans to be laid so that there would be enough teachers to go round—and enough teachers with the right sort of qualifications.

Turning to the recruitment of students to training colleges, Miss Horsbrugh said that last year's high level of recruitment had been more than maintained so far in 1953. By 1st September, over 8,500 women students and just over 2,300 men students had been enrolled; about 180 more than at the corresponding time last year. It was no easy matter to obtain more than 10,000 new trainees each year and this achievement was the result of a great deal of effort including that of teachers and local education authorities. There were, however, still about 500 unfilled places in training colleges, and efforts could not be relaxed. It would continue to be necessary not only to attract a large proportion of the girls straight from the Sixth forms of grammar schools but also to secure a substantial number of recruits from among young men and women who had already left school and gone out into the world.

The Minister referred to disquiet in some quarters about the disparity in the amount of grant for incidental expense made to training college students by local education authorities. She had recently asked all authorities for information on this point and was considering the whole problem with great care, including the question of grants available to teachers who undertook supplementary courses in subjects of their choice.

Miss Horsbrugh paid a tribute to the excellent work of many teachers in primary schools who had to deal with over-large classes. She feared that this problem would continue for some time yet, but in infants' schools at any rate in most parts of the country it was hoped that after this year conditions would become steadily easier.

Divisional Executives Conference

Religious Education

By THE REV. CANON R. W. STOPFORD, C.B.E., D.C.L., M.A.
Secretary of the Council of the Church Training Colleges

It is a sign of the new spirit of co-operation in English education that an association such as this should be giving prominence in its discussions to the problems of Religious Education, and that it should have invited an officer of the Church of England Council for Education to address its conference. I will try to present the main issues to you as some of us see them and to ask what I believe to be the vital questions—even if I cannot answer them myself.

It is clear that the intention of the Education Act of 1944 is that "subject to withdrawal on grounds of conscience, all boys and girls in schools maintained or aided from public funds shall participate in corporate worship so regularly and be taught the Christian faith and way of life so systematically and adequately that they will at least understand what Christianity means." In pamphlet 16—"Citizens Growing Up"—the Ministry of Education went somewhat further and committed itself to the statement that Christian belief and practice are the only foundations upon which a true and enduring citizenship can be built. It is very remarkable that this should have happened in an age when organized Christianity has lost its hold over large sections of our nation. What lies behind it? What was the object of those who framed the 1944 Act?

Purpose of Religious Education

It is essential that we should think clearly about the purpose of religious education and examine frankly what we mean by it. For there is a real danger that the teaching of Christianity may be advocated with the best intentions—and for the wrong reasons. How often, in the past few years, have we heard speakers urging the improvement of religious education to reduce juvenile delinquency or to improve national morale, or even to increase productivity. If men and women are really Christians they will indeed be more likely to behave better and be more worthy citizens; but the only proper reason for teaching the Christian faith to the young is that we believe it to be true, and, because it is true, that it is the only foundation upon which a free and democratic national life can be built. Religious education is a vital part of the life of a school because it alone can make sense of what the school does. If Christianity is true, then education must be Christian education. But to be a Christian means something more than acceptance of certain intellectual concepts; it involves not only the mind but also the will and the emotions. It can only be known fully by living it, and living it within the fellowship of the whole Christian church. The ultimate purpose of religious education, as Christians understand it, is to bring boys and girls to the point where they can freely decide whether or not they will accept the Christian view of God and man and take Jesus Christ as Lord over their own lives. So religious education must be education *in* religion and not *about* it, and as the Preface to one of the newer Agreed Syllabuses puts it, unless by the time they leave school boys and girls have become members of a worshipping community outside the school their religious education must be judged to have failed.

Religious education is therefore something more than religious instruction and corporate worship, important as these are. I would myself define Christian education as the spiritual, moral, mental and physical training which is given in a school which accepts the Christian faith and

tries to be a Christian community. Christianity cannot be just one more subject on the time-table; it must be the dynamic and guiding principle of everything the school does. May I quote here from the statement which was issued when the Education Department of the British Council of Churches was set up in 1950: "It is bad education to provide the means whereby men learn about the created world without being shown the character of the God who made it, as seen in it. It is bad education to provide the means whereby men learn of the revelation of God in Jesus Christ as if this were a separate subject and a separate concern from knowledge of creation and creatures." Expressed in the simplest terms I believe that what the 1944 Act intended and what the nation wants now is Christian education to give boys and girls the chance of being Christians.

Before we go further let me make a point which, though obvious, is often overlooked. Children spend more of their waking lives out of school than in it, and, as Mr. Gould reminded this Conference last year, they are being educated in the home, the street and the cinema for at least twice as much time as they are being educated in school. When we remember also that the average child receives in each week a total of not more than 3½ hours of religious instruction and worship we shall not expect too much from the schools. In our days the school, with all the limitations upon what it can achieve is expected to take on the tasks of the home and the Church—that it succeeds as well as it does is a cause of profound thankfulness.

What is there to Show for it?

For over a century most of our children have been receiving some kind of religious instruction. During the past ten years virtually every child has attended daily worship and had systematic teaching. What is there to show for it? Certainly not any marked increase in church attendance or membership. Though there are some indications that the tide is beginning to turn it is generally true that the Christian faith and the Christian ethic are less widely accepted than they were a century ago. How much then remains of what is taught about Christianity in the schools? Generalizations from limited enquiries are apt to be misleading but some significant facts have been made available in recent years. In 1951 the University of Leeds Institute of Education tested the amount of religious and historical knowledge possessed by about 1,000 boys and girls between sixteen and nineteen years of age, drawn from youth clubs, day-release classes and grammar schools. The results showed that less remained of historical teaching than of the scripture lessons. Some of the historical errors were quite staggering; Harold burnt the cakes, November 5th commemorates the defeat of the Armada, Caxton discovered that the world was round, Hannibal was connected with the Crusades and the Albert Hall was so named after Albert Schweitzer. But the answers on the Bible were only a little better, and there was widespread ignorance about the fundamental facts of the Christian faith. Another investigation was made in 1952 by an experienced Training College lecturer who tested some 300 students from various Training Colleges, representing some of the best products of a number of Grammar schools. On very simple tests of Biblical knowledge the average mark was only 45 per cent.

Even more significant was the statement by many of the students that the religious instruction they had received in school meant absolutely nothing to them in terms of personal and spiritual experience.

Wrong to hold Schools Responsible

It would be quite wrong, as I have suggested already, to hold the teachers and the schools responsible for this situation. They have been working against the current of contemporary thought, which has for many years been inimical to Christianity. It would be out of place for me to attempt anything like a diagnosis of the present position, which has been so well done in such books as Sir Walter Moberley's "The Crisis in the University" and Prof. Jeffreys' "Glaucou." Two points, however, I must make which are vital for my argument. The first is that most observers agree that our standards are dissolving and that the distinction between right and wrong is so hazy that we begin to wonder whether there is such a thing as right and wrong at all. The second point is that we are losing any sense of an unseen world around us or of our dependence upon a spiritual power beyond ourselves. The prevailing, though generally unconscious, philosophy is that the human mind is self-sufficient. I do not myself believe that there is any fundamental opposition between Religion and Science; as Professor Coulson has shown in his recent lectures on "Christianity in an age of Science," "religion exerts its influence on science just as, no less, science plays its part within the religious scheme." But the unconscious assumptions of many of our fellow citizens, based upon the achievements of applied science and nurtured by "popular" expositions of science, are materialistic and deterministic. It is generally believed that

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In such an atmosphere the Bible and the Christian Faith seem irrelevant. "The Bible is not at home in the world we live in." Perhaps it is a weakness of much of our religious instruction that it puts the Bible firmly 2,000 years ago and keeps it there. Whatever the cause it seems clear that much of our religious education makes little living contact with the minds of the pupils. That is the point from which we must start if we are trying to make our religious work in our schools more effective.

How effective is it now? Though judgments upon such a subject must be largely subjective there is fortunately some factual evidence available as a result of the enquiry which the Institute of Christian Education started in 1950 with the active help of the Teachers' organizations, the Institutes of Education and the Ministry. The interim report of this enquiry will not be made public until next year, but as a member of the Committee which is guiding the enquiry I have seen most of the material. There is a good deal of significant information about the position which religion and religious instruction occupy in the life and work of the schools. Religious education can only have that central position which I have described earlier if religious instruction as a subject has "parity of esteem" with other subjects. That means that it must have a similar amount of time allotted to it and be given an equivalent quality of specialist teaching. Let us look at some of the facts which are now available.

Important Provision of 1944 Act

Comparatively few primary schools appear to have taken advantage of the important provision of the 1944 Act by which religious instruction can be given at any time during the day. The enquiry conducted by the Birmingham Institute of Education showed that 75-85 per cent. of the primary schools still confine religious teaching to the first period of the day, when it is subject to interruption and curtailment which has become almost a joke in the teaching profession. Only 56 per cent. of the secondary modern schools distribute Scripture teaching throughout the day. This is more than a mere question of organization, for neglect of this section of the Act affects the efficiency of religious instruction and also takes away the freedom of the teachers, guaranteed by the Act, to teach Scripture only if they wish to do so. It would appear that some head teachers are not aware of this section of the Act.

But where religious instruction is distributed throughout the day, the amount of time given to it in each week rarely exceeds two hours. In the schools which took part in the Birmingham enquiry the percentage of the various grades which gave more than two hours was as follows: Infant, 40 per cent.; Junior, 53 per cent.; Secondary Modern, 14 per cent.; Grammar, 14 per cent. The replies to the questionnaire issued by the Joint Four showed that out of 674 Grammar schools 303 gave only one period a week to scripture throughout the school, and 422 gave only one period from the age of sixteen upwards. With so inadequate a provision of time can it be wondered that pupils do not consider that religious instruction is very important? The competition between the various subjects for time-table space in grammar schools is inevitably very keen, but one cannot resist the conclusion that in many of them Scripture has little chance.

Scripture as a G.C.E. subject

I know personally many heads and assistants in grammar schools who are working hard, and with considerable success, to make their schools Christian communities. I would agree also that the number of periods a week given to Scripture is not the only criterion of the religious life of a school. Nevertheless I must confess to a feeling of concern about the position of religious instruction in many grammar schools at the present time. The statistics of the G.C.E. show that only a comparatively small number of boys and

girls offer Scripture as one of their subjects. In 1952 there were 23,150 candidates in Scripture at the Ordinary level, as compared with 69,160 in History and 89,024 in French. The percentage of passes was 59 per cent of the girls, but only 38 per cent. of the boys; the poor percentage of the boys seems to call for some investigation. At the Advanced level the numbers entered were very small—602 in Scripture as against 9,299 in History and of this total only 168 were boys, which compares unfavourably with the 11,658 boys who offered Physics. It is true that some Scripture teachers feel strongly that their subject should not be examined in the ordinary way, and I have much sympathy with this view, but one cannot ignore the fact that a very large number of pupils find it difficult to take seriously subjects which are not to be examined. I have dwelt at some length on the grammar schools not because I wish to be critical but because what they do is crucial and has a bearing on the effectiveness of religious instruction in other types of school, for the Two-Year Training Colleges with their short and overcrowded courses must depend upon the grammar schools to supply them with students whose knowledge of scripture is as advanced as their knowledge of other subjects, if they, in their turn, are to supply the primary and secondary modern schools with teachers adequately equipped to give religious instruction.

In infant and junior schools the responsibility for religious teaching is normally—and rightly—laid upon the class teachers; specialist teachers would be out of place. The training colleges are doing their best to give as many of their students as possible an adequate knowledge of content and method so that they can undertake religious instruction. But it is obviously valuable to have on the staff of a primary school at least one teacher who has given some particular attention to religious education. In the secondary modern schools there is some division of opinion about the advisability of specialist teachers in most subjects,

but I would like to suggest that the problems and difficulties of religious instruction in these schools are so great that a Scripture specialist would be an asset on any staff. In grammar schools, where it is normal to have at least one member of staff with specialist qualifications in every subject, religious instruction will inevitably have a lower status if there is no one on the staff qualified to teach Vith Form and to advise his colleagues. What is the actual position? The evidence available suggests that in the secondary modern schools religious instruction specialists are still the exception and that there is no particular demand for them. An analysis of 432 vacant posts in secondary schools advertised in one of the educational papers in July of this year, showed that only twelve advertisements mentioned religious knowledge; three of these were for specialists, two were for Reserved Teachers, and seven combined religious knowledge with other subjects. The supply of teachers with specialist qualifications for modern schools is more than adequate to meet this apparently exiguous demand, for about 9 per cent. of the students in the two-year colleges take religious knowledge as a main or advanced subject. For most grammar schools a degree in Theology Honours would perhaps not be appropriate but there are few members of staff who have read any Theology to a University level. A considerable number of the men and women—about 25–30 each year—who have never taken a Third-Year Supplementary course in Divinity are appointed to grammar schools—a significant and perhaps unfortunate fact, for the status of the subject will not be enhanced in the minds of the pupils if the specialist in charge of it is the only man in the Common room without a degree. It is however, encouraging to note that an increasing number of grammar school teachers are giving up their leisure time to take such qualifications as the London Certificate in Divinity.

[Continued on page 108]

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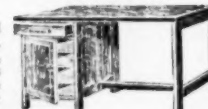


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Month by Month

Teachers' Salaries.

THE Salary Proposals of the Burnham Main Committee involve no notable departures from the Burnham Report of 1951. As the *Times Educational Supplement* reported, the teachers will get a "bit all round." Everyone will be slightly better off and the present position of one class of teacher in relation to another will be substantially maintained. The head teachers of the smallest schools will gain the most. At present it hardly pays a teacher to take on the additional responsibility of such a headship. "The teaching profession . . . if underpaid, is no longer grossly so." That is one impartial verdict. The popular daily press condemned the new proposals as meagre, miserly, totally inadequate. Even the most responsible papers used similar language. It was evident, however, that few if any of the newspapers in question really knew just what the proposed increases were. The proposals of course fall short of the teachers' demands as formulated by the National Union of Teachers and the Secondary Teachers' Associations. The N.U.T. has, however, sufficiently indicated that it will approve the agreed proposals. Associations outside the Burnham Committee exercise fully their freedom to condemn. The National Association of Schoolmasters speak of these "niggardly increases." To the National Union of Women Teachers the lower scales for women make the figures even worse than niggardly. The Graduate Teachers' Association regards the proposed awards as "an insult to the graduate members" of the profession. The additional payment to graduates, and particularly to first class honours graduates, may of course make the appointment of such teachers, where less qualified teachers can be employed, a luxury too costly for some employers. The largest class of teachers in any case are the qualified assistants. It is interesting to see how a primary school teacher's salary has increased since 1938. Under the report of that year the salary scales were:

Men—£180+£12 to £366. Women—£162+£9 to £288.

Under the proposed new Report the salary scales would be:

Men—£450+£18 to £725. Women—£405+£15 to £580.

These are the minimum basic salaries for the least qualified and least responsible (in the technical sense) majority of teachers, and take no notice of the many possible additions to the basic scales. The figures show the following increases:

Men—150 per cent. at minimum. 50 per cent. on increments and 98 per cent. at maximum.

Women—150 per cent. at minimum. 66 per cent. on increments and 101.3 per cent. at maximum.

Such increases over the period in question hardly merit the adjectives which have been used to describe them. They compare very favourably with the increases of other professional salaries. On the other hand it may fairly be mentioned that in the same period industrial wages have risen by no less than 196 per cent. ! There are, of course, other factors which should be taken into account when comparing the wages of an industrial worker with the salary of a primary school teacher.

Holidays, and the five day week, and the length of the working day are the principal but by no means the only such factors. Pension rights are so substantially paid for by the teachers, every increase in salary adding to his contribution, that they may here be disregarded.

* * *

Physical Education.

TWENTY years ago the Board of Education issued its *Syllabus of Training for Schools*. It was not until last year that anything was issued to replace that syllabus which had fallen into disuse and which had long ceased to express current ideas on what is now called *Physical Education*. Even this simple change in nomenclature is symptomatic of much healthy change in thought and practice. What was originally taught as *physical drill*, became in turn *exercises*, *training* and now *education*. It is probably all to the good that no attempt was made during those twenty years to replace or even to revise the old syllabus. New principles had to be evolved, formulated and accepted before they could be published and given practical application. Last year the Ministry, jointly with the Central Office of Information, published the first of the two books which are really Parts 1 and 2 of a new book, *Physical Education in the Primary School*. Its title was *Movement and Growing*, for it was a study of the movement of growing children. It was addressed to parents as well as teachers and can be warmly commended to them as a fascinating production. Now Part 2 has been issued, entitled *Planning the Programme*. It begins with a survey of the facilities available for physical education; which are by no means limited to the school buildings and playgrounds. Chapter 2 is concerned with the teacher and the class and with the framework of the lesson and follows more directly on the earlier volume. The change in relationship between teacher and class during the present century is well stated. This was indeed necessary, as it is not always realized that this relationship is or should be similar to the same relationship as it exists in the classroom. The balance between direction and free practice is discussed. The teacher is encouraged to provide the general framework and then to allow the children to make their own discoveries in their own time. Thus will be created both new opportunities and new demands. The teacher's planning of the year's programme in general and of the next period ahead in particular will guide the general pattern of his or her work. Help for the child will be timed by the teacher's knowledge of each child's progress and mastery of movement, so that progress is neither forced nor checked. The chapters on Dance and on the Observation of Movement should be studied not only by teachers of physical education, but by all who inspect, supervise or visit the primary schools of this country.

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Education as a National Charge.

SEVERAL speakers at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Municipal Corporations, last month, suggested that the Government should take over the entire responsibility of the English education, health, fire and police services. There is much to be said in favour of such a change. The proposal does, however, need to be examined fully and carefully by a responsible and impartial committee or commission of enquiry. One speaker, realizing that the proposal would logically mean the abolition of local education

authorities as such, said that the old saw "he who pays the piper calls the tune" should no longer apply. It may be said in reply, however, that local authorities themselves have always accepted and acted upon that principle. That principle is, for example, the fundamental basis of the "controlled" voluntary school set-up. By the same principle, the local education authority is responsible for the educational standards in aided voluntary schools, since the authority pays the whole of the cost. Would authorities be as willing to renounce the principle as they are to ask the Ministry so to do? Many other questions arise. Is it possible to envisage the extension of the 100 per cent. grant from the Meals and Milk Service to the other services operated by local education authorities? The Mayor of Harrogate, Alderman J. Ward, spoke of the Education service as "a millstone round the necks of local authorities." He complained that about one-third of local rates went on education, compared with one-fifth before the war. That, of course, is no criticism of the education service, although often expressed as such. It is the simple result of the transfer from local authorities to new nationalized services of work formerly done by those authorities. Obviously, if all the remaining functions, other than education, were similarly transferred, then the education service would account for 100 per cent. of the local rates. "If the education service were entirely taken over by the Government" as Alderman Ward proposed the result might be financially more equitable for the people of England, provided that there was no further upward movement of the exemption limit for income tax. It would not be a difficult matter to extend the "direct grant" system to all secondary schools. It would not be so easy administratively to extend it to the far more numerous and often much smaller primary schools. Local committees would still be needed, but they might follow the model of the Ministry of Labour. The education service would thus be removed from the field of local and party politics and handed over, for good or ill, to a national bureaucracy.

* * *

Independent Schools.

THE Ministry of Education has issued an Addendum to its Manual of Guidance, Special Services No. 1, to draw attention to changes made by the 1953 Education Act in the law affecting the basis on which local education authorities take up places for handicapped pupils in independent schools. Hitherto local education authorities have had to arrange for the special educational treatment of their handicapped pupils either in a special school or in a school maintained or assisted by a local education authority. Local education authorities wishing to send handicapped pupils to an independent school had therefore technically to "assist" the school under the Education Act, 1944, Section 9(1). So much is explained in paragraph 2 of the Addendum. The position was thoroughly unsatisfactory if not downright dishonest. It was, in fact, the school which was assisting the authority and not *vice versa*. The shortage of school places for handicapped pupils, particularly of certain categories was and is acute. It is indeed fortunate for the authorities and the children concerned that there are a number of independent schools which give special educational treatment even to the most difficult handicapped pupils and do it remarkably well. It can only be regarded as absurd that a local education authority

should be regarded as assisting such a school if it is fortunate enough to be able to obtain a place or places at it. A school should not be regarded as an "assisted" school solely because a local education authority takes up a place at it. That is not in accordance with the definition given in the Education Act, 1944. A "direct grant" school does not cease to be such and become an "assisted" school because a local education authority takes up places at it. It is indeed a condition of direct grant status that a number of places at the school shall be available to the local education authority. Under the 1953 Act a local education authority may arrange for special educational treatment at an independent school provided that it is "not notified by the Minister to the authority to be . . . unsuitable for the purpose." It is no longer necessary to make use of Section 9(1) of the principal Act. Instead, the authority so acting is regarded as "exercising its powers under Section 6 of the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1953, which empowers authorities, with the Minister's approval, to arrange for the education of its pupils at a school not maintained by them or by another local education authority."

On independent schools generally, the Minister had something to say when she addressed the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools at Oxford. She proclaimed her disagreement with the views of the Labour Party as expressed in "Challenge to Britain." She found it hard to believe that because some half-million children were being educated at their parents' expense in independent schools a mockery was being made, as the Socialists claimed, of the equal opportunities offered to six million pupils in grant-aided schools. She described as "false" the published criticism of the education provided by the preparatory boarding schools. The future of such schools depended largely on the stability and permanency which they themselves could create, and the sense of responsibility and self-reliance they could develop in their pupils.

Teacher Exchange with U.S.

The British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers between the United Kingdom and the United States is now inviting teachers in the United Kingdom to apply for inclusion in the 1954-55 group of exchange teachers. The Committee hopes to arrange for 100 British teachers to exchange posts for a year with a similar number from the United States.

For the last four years each exchange teacher from this country has received a grant of £225 from the Ministry of Education, the Scottish Education Department, or the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland. In addition substantial assistance has been provided from the American Fulbright funds towards the cost of ocean travel.

Teachers wishing to apply for exchange should write as soon as possible to the British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers, Concord House, 11, Charles Street, London, W.1. Completed application forms should reach the Committee by 16th November next.

The L.C.C. has arranged for The Opera Players to present a shortened version of Rossini's "The Barber of Seville" at eight secondary schools in North London. It is estimated that about 1,750 pupils will see these performances. The Opera Players are a small company which specializes in school performances.

Religious Education

Continued from page 105.

"Problem of Communication"

These facts which I have quoted suggest lines of action which would help to make religious education more effective by raising its status. But there are much more fundamental problems which must be faced before religious education in the schools can be considered to be really effective, and they are all connected with what is sometimes called the "problem of communication." If, as I have suggested earlier, the Bible is not at home in the modern world how can we make it so? And if the Christian faith seems irrelevant how can we present it so that our boys and girls will feel that it has something to say which is vital to them? There is no easy answer, and no single solution to a problem which is baffling the leaders of the churches. What I have to say has no authority except my own, and I do not claim for it either originality or profundity. But I do believe that we have to start from the point where the children are now—and where their parents are—and that this involves a radical re-thinking of much of our existing religious education.

In the first place I think we need less rather than more Bible teaching as it is now understood, and a great deal more teaching of the Christian faith. Biblical teaching must never be an end in itself—and it very often is. Rather it must be the means of teaching the Christian faith and way of life. Merely to teach the Bible as literature, or as part of the English heritage, or as a record of certain historical events, will not achieve any of the objects of religious education as I defined them before. For too long we have been afraid of teaching doctrine, a word which has still overtones of meaning in our schools because of the past denominational difficulties. Though the old controversies are mainly dead, their echoes still remain and the old misunderstanding of the purpose and meaning of the Cowper-Temple clause still lingers. That is not the fault of the Agreed Syllabuses, most of which provide very adequate courses in Christian doctrine and emphasize its importance, as in the Preface to the London syllabus. What is needed is that more use should be made of these sections. To teach doctrine does indeed require in the teacher a deeper personal commitment than to give instruction in the history of Israel and Judah or the Missionary Journeys of St. Paul, and teachers, as a body, are too honest to teach to others what they do not themselves fully accept. But on this issue there can be no neutrality; I believe that very many teachers are unnecessarily tender in their consciences where religious instruction is concerned. At every stage in education we need to teach the Christian faith through the Bible, and at every stage if this is not done children may get false ideas which may in later years hold them back from Christian discipleship. In the junior school a child may easily get a wrong idea of God from hearing some of the Old Testament stories in isolation; in the secondary modern school it is fatally easy to distort the picture of our Lord by a wrong emphasis on some parts only of the Gospel story. And in the grammar school unless the teacher is ready to meet the questions of the pupils which are often very searching, he will not be able to make his scripture lessons come alive. I would like to see in all schools a much greater use of the history of the Christian church, especially in the last fifty years; well taught the record of the expansion of Christendom brings home, as nothing else can, that the Christian gospel is as relevant to-day as it was 2,000 years ago.

But this is not all. Such is our present condition that much must be done before Christian education can begin. What I mean is that until men and women have ceased to believe that mankind can save itself by its own unaided

efforts, and have seen the fallacy of determinism they will inevitably feel that the Christian faith is outworn. We cannot expect the schools to do the whole of this pre-Christian education, but may we not ask that every boy and girl by the age of fifteen shall have been brought face to face with the great issues of life—even if the full understanding of them depends upon their further education? If it were solely an intellectual and philosophical matter the schools could do little before the age of fifteen. But "Christian education is concerned with a relationship between men and God which not only permits and demands indefinite enquiry but which, because of the character of God determines the ends which knowledge shall serve. Feelings and emotions are therefore engaged and Christian education requires the training of this part of human nature." Religious education will fail if it is only academic, and if it does not at all times emphasize that faith and action, willing and doing, are inseparably interconnected.

Importance of School Worship

It is here that we see the vital importance of school worship. It is, in my opinion, more important than religious instruction by itself. In connection with an enquiry by the London Institute of Education in co-operation with the L.C.C. and the N.U.T., I have recently had the privilege of attending school assemblies in every type of school. What has impressed me most is the high quality of so much school worship. When a head and his staff put all they know and are into making the assembly a real act of worship of the whole school community something happens which quite clearly affects the whole life of the school and is a potent influence in the lives of the individual children. I wish that I had time to enlarge upon this aspect of religious education. Much needs to be done to make

known the ways in which difficulties are being overcome and the methods which have proved so effective. I hope that the enquiry which I mentioned will result in a pamphlet of suggestions, but what is really required is local discussion and experiment in every area.

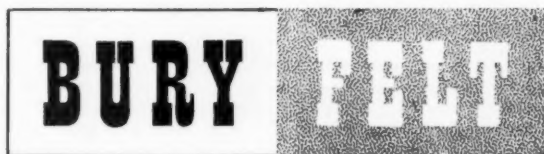
But when religious instruction and school worship are as good as we can make them, what happens when the boy or girl leaves school at the age of fifteen and has no contact thereafter with the life and teaching of the Christian church? The Leeds enquiry showed that the knowledge of the Bible gained in school was likely to remain only when the pupil was connected with some religious organization, and this must apply far more to the Christian attitudes and standards which we hope the school will have taught. Several local authorities have seen that this is the real problem of religious education. Some of us have been thinking very hard about what might be called the "religious after-care of children" and I must admit that we have not seen any clear solution. One thing however is clear—that the solution depends upon a much closer understanding between teachers and clergy. Nothing is more vital for the future of religious education than that all who are concerned with it should set themselves to the task of linking up school and church in a new relationship of mutual confidence and trust.

It is on this note that I wish to end, because I see it as quite crucial. I have not answered all the questions implied in the Conference programme and I hope that you will not think I have evaded them. I have tried to state the underlying issues. We are all in this business of religious education together; we can all learn from each other, and we can, as I have done, receive much encouragement from the sense that all you here, representing so many parts of our country, care deeply that religious education shall be the centre of our educational enterprise.

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Divisional Executives Conference

The Problems Created by Backwardness in Reading

By MR. JAMES HEMMING, M.A.

It seems to me that all argument about whether or not to-days children are less good readers than those of fifteen years ago is a waste of time. Some evidence points one way; some another. I certainly find it hard to accept the standpoint of the pessimists in view of the facts that the loans of books from public libraries and the total sales of periodicals have both greatly increased. But, in any case, haggling about then and now leads to the wrong questions. What we really need to know is whether current national attainment in literacy is high enough and whether, if it is not, we can make it higher. The answer to the first question is that current attainment is certainly far too low in view of the nature and needs of modern life, and the answer to the second question is that we can certainly raise the level if we go the right way about it. Let me deal with the first question first, particularly in relation to reading, since that is our subject this morning.

Extent of Backwardness in Reading

What is the extent of backwardness in reading that is at present to be found in our society? We have a good many careful researches at our disposal to give us the facts. Early work was carried out by Sir Cyril Burt. Dr. W. D. Wall, formerly of Birmingham University and now working with Unesco, has completed a number of research surveys both during and after the war. We have the special research reported at the back of the Ministry's pamphlet, *Reading Ability*, and we have the findings of the Army in the check they have kept on recruits and National Service Men. Finally, we have a number of local inquiries to assist us, such as those conducted by various local education authorities. These researches point to the same general conclusions. Although a quite insignificant number of children are completely illiterate—say 1 per cent.—between one in three and one in four leave school either seriously incompetent as readers or with poor reading ability. These figures are based on the capacity to read, and to understand what has been read. But I would wish to add another criterion—ease and pleasure in reading. I believe there is only one valid test of a reader—does he enjoy reading continuous prose? In my view, if a child leaves school falling short of that degree of attainment his education has failed him, because it has failed to make him a reader in a culturally valuable sense. Thus, if we ask not only "How many do not read?" but "How many do not read books?" the answer seems to be as high as 50 per cent. of the population. A higher proportion of the community still do not ever join libraries. This suggests that a good many who know how to read have failed to acquire true enjoyment from reading.

Before going on to consider the effects on persons and society of illiteracy, sub-literacy and backwardness I would like to modify a little the rather grim picture that research offers. All human abilities spread by natural variation from the extremely weak to the highly brilliant. Reading is no exception to this. Thus, there will always be in society, at any rate for the foreseeable future, a certain percentage whose inherent capacity is so low that they can never become competent readers even of quite simple prose, by which I mean they will never exceed a reading age of about ten however carefully we teach them. This sector of the population is a little under 3 per cent. Further, children of a higher but still comparatively poor capacity cannot be expected to exceed their inherent ability.

Educationally the crux of the matter is this. Are a significant number of children leaving school with their attainment in reading skill falling considerably short of their potentialities? Yes they are, and this has always been so. But to-day we can no longer tolerate this waste. That is why educators are awakening to the urgent need to bridge the existing gap between attainment and capacity in our community. We can never *completely* abolish reading backwardness; but we can abolish the widespread *unnecessary* backwardness that exists in our community. The Ministry's research indicates that for every child who is inevitably backward on leaving school there are two who are unnecessarily backward.

Turning to the personal and social consequences of backwardness in reading. The political pattern of Great Britain is that of a democracy; our social aim is full employment within a community where no man is obstructed from attaining the position of which he is inherently capable; our economic aim is maximum production; our educational aim is the development of human potentialities to the full; and our cultural obligation is to pass on to each succeeding generation a life of the mind, heart and spirit that is constantly enriched and renewed by the changing experiences which our national evolution brings to us. In this mid-twentieth century Britain, we can achieve none of these aims properly if the average level of literacy falls far short of the optimum, as it certainly has done up to now.

There is a great deal that could be said on this score. I shall have to limit myself to some of the more obvious consequences of poor reading ability. For convenience I will consider them under the headings of Personal Effects, Social Effects, and Cultural Effects, although, in fact, of course, all the different effects react upon each other.

Personal Effects

The most important personal effect of poor reading skill is probably the feeling of social inferiority that it inevitably imposes along with twisting and stunting of emotional development. To-day there is no escape from exposure. During the nineteen-thirties there were, on average, 14 per cent. of the employable population unemployed. There were, moreover, still many menial, organized jobs in society which the less able could unobtrusively fill. Nor did conscription for National Service exist. Consequently much illiteracy passed unobserved. This is no longer so. Ours is an increasingly verbal society and any person who lacks functional skill with words is very soon challenged by circumstances to reveal his inadequacy. The deep sense of inferiority engendered may produce a reaction of anti-social aggressiveness, of resentment, of shame or of apathy. But, one way or another, courage is likely to be sapped and personal adjustment to be impaired. The non-reader or poor reader feels cut off from his community and therefore, to some extent rejected by it. This can lead to all sorts of personal maladjustment, including delinquency. In a highly verbal society a poor reader is as much "out of it" as is a tone-deaf person in a highly musical society or a poor rider on a ranch.

Failure in fluency as a reader also leads to serious impoverishment of the whole mental life. Man's mind works with symbols. Of these words are the most important because they are the most universal and the most readily manipulated. Words are, in fact, the raw material of thought. Failing familiarity with enough words the average person

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lacks the means both to think and to express himself accurately. He cannot communicate with others with any precision. Of course, the whole of literacy and not just reading affect the acquisition of an adequate personal vocabulary, but few who have a seriously impaired reading skill can, in our society, hope to acquire a degree of fluency appropriate to life in the modern world.

The third broad personal effect of low reading ability is that the person so handicapped is denied the essential human need of selection. Our highly-mechanized world offers plenty to do to the non-reader. He can listen-in, view, go to the cinema and so forth. In fact, he is positively overwhelmed with alternative ways of spending his leisure hours, quite apart from any activities in which he may be interested. But the non-reader is, nevertheless, at a tremendous disadvantage because he has to take what is offered him. In contrast, the fluent reader has the whole world of human experience awaiting his exploration at any moment. Any budding interest can be immediately followed up; any worn-out interest can at once be discarded in favour of another. He does not have to take a thriller when it is being laid on for him or to wait for details of mountain climbing until the B.B.C. or the local cinema decides to feature it. He can choose. Of all human attributes the power of choice is supreme. The functionally inept reader is terribly impoverished in this regard.

Social and Economic Effects

I now pass on to consider some of the most general social effects of backwardness in reading. We are a democracy and a democracy can only be virile and healthy if its citizens attain good standards of alertness and awareness. The headlines plus the sports page do not supply the sort of information upon which intelligent participation in affairs can be based. What people read and what they leave unread is not, of course, just a matter of whether or not they can read with ease. But we can be quite sure that when reading is an effort rather than a pleasure it is the more serious parts of the daily papers that are most neglected. Our modern state is tied together by a network of communication to an extent that is not always appreciated. Dr. M. M. Lewis has rightly said in his new book, *The Importance of Illiteracy*, that the leaders and led in a modern community are, as it were, in a constant state of conversation with each other. This is not only true but it needs to be true. The nation is economically unified as it has never been before. We depend absolutely on attaining sufficient common knowledge of affairs to ensure co-operation in the satisfaction of our needs. Every limitation in the give and take of words between us hinders the growth of understanding and participation upon which our prosperity depends. Let me give you just one example. Shortly after the war it became imperative to convey to the people as a whole the facts governing our economic survival. There were articles about it; correspondence columns discussed it; the Government even purchased advertising space in order to present the home truths of our economic position in the simplest possible form. But all this effort was entirely wasted on over half the community because they lacked the facility to gather the facts from the printed explanations of our national quandary.

Under the system of two-party government almost every issue is made into a controversy. Citizens who are not able

to read and understand both sides are left as victims of the loudest shouters. Raising the level of maturity of our democracy is more than just a question of literacy; but without a higher degree of literacy we have no hope whatever of attaining the maturity we need and, I would add, that the world needs in us. For the realm of democracy is still only a small part of the modern world and we have a big responsibility to sustain and extend the democratic way of life inside our own borders.

Within our representative institutions—industry, the Services and so forth—the existing degree of backwardness in reading imposes a constant wasteful loss of efficiency. "Illiterates cannot be trained for modern war" said Sir Ronald Adam in 1941. That is just as true of modern industry. Units of organization are inevitably complicated in the world of to-day. Constant easy inter-communication of sector with sector, person with person, is vital to smooth working. In the system of communication, the written word still plays a large part. Every worker whose reading skill is poor is, consequently, a source of friction and obstruction within his organization. It is also obviously true that within education itself sub-literacy is a serious source of waste and inefficiency. Retarded children and retarded groups make exceptional demands upon their teachers. If there are too many of them, either they are left to rot or the more able are penalized on their behalf. Shortage of man-power and austerity are heavy enough loads for education to carry at present without this additional burden of widespread unnecessary backwardness in reading. Backwardness is not only nationally inconvenient, it is also enormously expensive in terms of financial loss.

Yet another widespread effect of sub-literacy, in which inability to read plays a large part, is the generation within our society of philistine anti-literacy elements. Men cannot endure to lose face. Consequently those who lack literacy readily associate with others like themselves to form groups who bolster their prestige by assuring each other that literacy is all a lot of nonsense anyway. There are homes and groups in this country who are quick to ridicule any serious reading on the part of one of their members. This is one reason why bookless homes breed bookless homes. As literacy becomes ever more important, there is some risk that our society may become stratified in terms of literary attainment. I believe there is some extremely interesting work to be done in this field by social anthropologists. That apart, we know that anything which divides a society into artificial alien factions is bad. Illiteracy does so. This leads me on to the third group of general effects, the cultural ones.

Cultural Effects

Culture depends on community. Community feeling depends on sharing experiences directed to the fulfilment of common aims. In simple societies a common culture is easily sustained. The annual cycle of work, ritual and ceremony bind each to all in a brotherhood of shared endeavour, shared values and shared ideas. As society becomes technical and complicated, these unifying influences lose their power and disintegration replaces integration. That is, in general, the state of western cultures, including our own, to-day. This era of disintegration is probably inevitable. We have taken the road of constant scientific

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and industrial advance and we must accept the cultural consequences.

But we cannot as educators remain indifferent to them. We are faced with the problem of how to maintain community feeling and cultural standards amid the confusion and materialism of the modern world. My view is that once the simple bonds go, society can be sustained only by a culture of common values and ideas, formed, exchanged and modified through a vigorous and widely-shared literacy. That means, among other things, more and wider reading, particularly of books. The transient exchanges of newspapers, periodicals, cinema and radio are too ephemeral to serve as a foundation of a culture, although they can greatly help—or hinder—its sustenance. So long as reading standards remain as low as they now are a big proportion of the community are unable to make real contact with the crucial issues of their times. They are doomed to a mental diet that is shallow, cheap and frivolous if not actually perverse. Let me emphasize again that I am not suggesting we have to return to some past golden age of higher literacy. There never was such an age. Our task is to go forward to create higher standards of literacy than have ever existed in the past.

The Remedies

How is this job to be done? That we have still to find out. There is no magic formula. We are faced on the one hand with a big and urgent problem and, on the other, with a considerable ignorance about many of the factors involved in a solution. Much research still waits to be done. Nevertheless, some principles have already emerged to provide useful initial guidance. I think it may be worth while to summarize a few of what seem to me to be the most important of them.

It is of overwhelming importance that every child, from the very start of his schooling, shall develop the right attitude towards his own literacy. Among all backward

children are to be found a large proportion who have developed negative attitudes. They are actively resistant to the whole idea of learning to read. Burt found this proportion to be as high as 65 per cent. in the group he studied. Those working in Army education have found a similarly high figure. There are many causes for such resistance, but discouragement is undoubtedly one of the chief. Too much criticism, pressure and failure in the early stages of learning to read will so disturb a child that he has to turn to active resistance as a means of self-defence. Half the battle in the struggle to rehabilitate a sub-literate child or adult is to convince him that, after all, literacy is something worthwhile for him.

Secondly, a broad-minded experimental approach on the part of all teachers of reading is required. Mankind has a great love of panaceas. We hunger for a single, simple, certain answer to any problem facing us. Hence the complex art of teaching children to read has come to be broken up by a too complete adherence to one technique or another. We have had the look-and-say faction arguing virulently with those supporting the context method and the neo-phonetic school calling down a plague on both their houses. We are now coming to see that there is no supreme method just as there is no precise age at which any particular child should be expected to read. Children vary infinitely. Each child creates for us a new problem in how best to teach him to read. If we are to master unnecessary illiteracy, preconceptions about method and about the standards that should be attained by any particular age must give way to an objective care in suiting each child with the reading course upon which he will thrive best. In fact, the best method is a proper balance of all methods, modified as may be necessary to suit each child or small group. Acquiring skill in reading is a very personal matter; mass production does not work. That is one reason why the overcrowding of schools and classes increases illiteracy.

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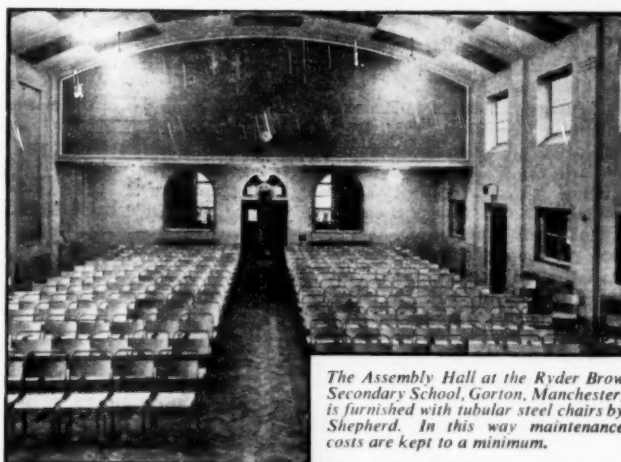
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Thirdly we have to do all we can to stimulate the child's desire to read. A number of obvious incentives for learning to read have disappeared from our society. Consider, for example, the child's eagerness to read the captions in the old silent cinema days. Consider just how wonderful was the new world waiting to reward literacy in the days before broadcasting. Schools have to do all they can to stimulate incentive to make up for the loss in society as a whole. Army educators have been very much alive to this. By combining powerful incentives with sound methods they have promoted a gain equal to four years of schooling in a mere few weeks. One cannot help but ask why the same approach was not used before the children left school. Which brings us to another essential. Backwardness must be caught early in order that it may be cured easily. Every month that a child is left lagging behind and losing grip helps to pervert his attitudes, undermine his courage, and increases the difficulty of rehabilitating him.

This matter of incentive is a curious and complicated one. It includes the relationship existing between teacher and taught and the degree of esteem in which the learner holds himself. One case from an English remedial centre illustrates some of the complexities. When the sadly backward boy arrived at the centre he was tested and watched and fussed over generally. He immediately began to improve and rapidly gained nearly a year in reading age. Then he stuck and remained stuck month after month. The staff began to feel they had done all they could for him when he had a curious accident. While out with his mother one Saturday morning he offered an apple to a horse in the street and lost the top joint of one of his fingers along with the apple. Immediately he became for a while once more the centre of attention and immediately he made another rapid advance in his reading. Then, once more, he stuck. The moral of this quaint anecdote is that there are always reserves of ability which are not under the conscious control of the child but which are there waiting to be tapped if only we have skill enough to reach them. John Duncan puts the matter concisely in his book on *Backwardness in Reading* when he writes

Intellectual dullness imposes a limit on potential development.

The potential is, however, seldom reached.

The art of tapping available potential is largely one of promoting incentive. This is something about which we do not yet know sufficient.

The last principle I wish to mention is that of background—environment. We know that literate homes produce literate children and bookless homes bookless children. How then are we to redress the balance of sub-literate homes existing in our community? We have, I think, not only to make our schools themselves highly literate establishments but they must be so planned that the significance of their literacy gets across to the pupils. There is all the difference in the world between a school that *teaches* literacy and one that is itself a fully literate school community. In the first case, literacy is a classroom matter only; in the second, reading, writing, discussing and communicating are so much a part of the whole school life that they are encountered at every point in it. The second type of school—still not common enough—advertises in its very way of life the value of literacy and the fun to be got out of it.

I hope I have not been too pessimistic. I can see no cause for pessimism. We are not gloomily trying to recover lost ground; our job is rather the much more exciting one of pressing on adventurously towards new standards of literacy that are worthy of a mature democracy. There is much work to be done; including much research to be undertaken. There is no time to be lost. Yet the situation is full of promise for we have within our children rich reserves of potentiality awaiting skilled cultivation.

British Film Institute

Film Lecturing

Thanks to the efforts of an increasing number of film society committees, to the regional groups of the Federation of Film Societies and to the lecture service of the British Film Institute under Miss Lloyd, there has been a steady increase in the number of lectures and courses on film subjects held over the past few years.

The demand for lectures on film subjects falls short of the supply of willing lecturers in London but considerably exceeds it elsewhere; because of the heavy concentration of film makers and film journalists in the capital there is a shortage of authoritative lecturers elsewhere. The Institute and the Federation are seeking jointly to remedy this deficiency by organizing a series of short training courses for lecturers.

The first of these, a pilot school, was held in the small theatre of the Film Institute over the week-end September 12th/13th, with ten prominent members of the Federation who already have some experience of lecturing and who have a considerable knowledge of cinema who willingly submitted themselves to the ordeal of a practical training course. They attended by joint invitation of the Federation and the Institute. The programme was arranged so that each member of the course had to address the others at least twice and subject himself to subsequent criticism from the tutors and his fellow students.

The tutor in charge was Mr. Andrew Campbell, and the course was organized by Mr. Stanley Reed of the Institute with Miss Lloyd and Miss Tessa Mills assisting. Mr. John Huntley and Mr. Tony Hodgkinson of the Institute staff acted together with Mr. Campbell and Mr. Reed as instructors and critics. It was felt by those present that the experiment was a considerable success and it was planned to hold other courses in the future. With some modifications the pattern will be the same, with the emphasis continuing to be on practice work by the students.

Teachers' Courses

Among the courses arranged by the British Film Institute for the present season is one sponsored jointly with the University of London Institute of Education. This course, which is exclusively for training college lecturers in the area of the Institute of Education, is a very thorough one, comprising twenty-four lectures and discussion periods, visits to cinemas, schools and to Ealing Studios. Members of the course are to follow the career of an Ealing production from its scripting stages to its final appearance on the screen, and the producer and the director of the film will lecture during the course.

The tutor in charge of the course is Stanley Reed of the Film Institute. Other lecturers include Mr. Paul Rotha, Mr. Denis Forman, Director of the Film Institute, Mr. Ernest Lindgren, Curator of the National Film Library, Mr. Arthur Watkins, Chief Censor, Mr. Forsyth Hardy and Mr. Karel Reisz and Mr. John Huntley, both of the Film Institute.

This course is part of a campaign to interest teachers in the possibility of film appreciation work in schools and to provide facilities for the training of those interested in this work in the Teacher-Training Colleges.

Speaking in Washington (U.S.A.), Mr. Lee M. Thurston, Federal Commissioner of Education, said that there would be a shortage of about 345,000 secondary school classrooms in the United States during the 1953-54 academic year. This meant that three out of every five classrooms would be overcrowded. Mr. Thurston added that not only had the record number of nearly 37 million school children outpaced school building but there was also a shortage of teachers.

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The Teaching of History

By DR. C. F. STRONG, O.B.E., M.A., Ph.D.

Chairman of the Executive Committee of the National Co-operating Body for Education, United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO. Formerly Director of Education for Tottenham.

History is not only a popular but a vital subject. Its popularity may be judged from the success of plays and films based on historical themes; in such a play, for example, as *The Young Elizabeth*, and in such a film as *Young Bess*, both produced, appropriately enough, in this Coronation Year. These particular stage and screen dramas contain a more wholesome pabulum than that sometimes fed to cinema audiences. Many such adaptations, in fact, involve a vulgarization in the worst possible sense of that originally good word, as, for example, in the recent film about Salome, which plays havoc not only with the facts of history but with the Christian chronology. There is, indeed, no depth of banality to which some of those responsible for public entertainment will not sink, and I should not be surprised to hear of the intention of some impresario to produce Gibbons' *Decline and Fall* on Ice, though I doubt whether it would be a success, for there are too many cracks in Gibbon, especially in the Footnotes, and, in any case, *Decline and Fall* would surely be too unfortunate a title for an ice show.

I wish rather to speak of history as a serious subject of study and to discuss the purpose of teaching and learning it. In one sense, of course, history is the story of life itself, and it begins, paradoxically, in what some school books call the Days before History, which, as Euclid said on more than one famous occasion, is absurd. To the Greeks, at any rate history was important enough for them to regard one of the nine Muses as having it under her special protection. They called her Clio, and she has remained an object of veneration at least since the days of Herodotus and Thucydides to this day, and it is worth enquiring why. I must say that Clio appears to be a goddess of somewhat easy virtue, swaying incontinently between this devotee and that. At one moment she is indulging the Whiggery of Macaulay, at another the materialism of Marx; and, having allowed herself to be compromised by the hero-worship of Carlyle, she throws him over for Lytton Strachey who proceeds to debunk the heroes. The artists, the scientists, the philosophers, the psychologists make passes at her, and she welcomes them all, though with varying degrees of ardour. Truly did Milton write, "My wandering Muse, how thou dost stray!" Clio is least happy, apparently, with the psychologists, perhaps because they are too sophisticated for a simple woman with a classical education. They are certainly the product of a complex society alien to the one in which she was brought up. Their modernity was emphasized recently by a historian who pointed out that there were very few psychologists in Ancient Britain, but, as *Punch* remarked in noting this observation, it must be remembered that in those early days the country was only very sparsely inhabited. In short, the greater the complexity the more numerous the complexes.

The truth is that these inconstancies are the price that Clio had had to pay to keep her temple, if not herself, intact, for they reflect the changing mood and temper of the work of historians through the ages. Not less but more history is now written than ever before. As social and political life in the Machine Age becomes more complicated, it moves at a more revolutionary speed, and the records become more voluminous. Thus, while the pace of life quickens, the task of selection from the mass of historical

material becomes more exacting, and specialization increases. One may feel that this is piling Pelion on Ossa, but nobody suggests that it is not important, whether in the schools or in the world at large. Indeed, no less an authority than the Headmaster of Eton said, in his striking address to the British Association in 1950, that "the right approach to the study of history is our most important immediate educational problem." This is a remarkable statement from the Headmaster of a school steeped in the classical tradition ever since its foundation in the middle of the 15th century. But it is true, and its truth is borne out by the Oxford historian, J. A. P. Taylor, who in his book, *Rumours of Wars*, says: "History is for us what the classics were for our ancestors. It is the largest school in our universities; it ranks second only to fiction in the lists of publishers; and it is the bran-tub from which we make a lucky dip for generalizations on social behaviour or the character of individuals." And he adds: "It is right that most professional historians should put first the merits of research. History can no more flourish without it than the classics can keep going without accurate texts. But we also need the professional historian who can raise his head from the researcher's desk and ask what we are up to."

Well, what precisely are we up to? Let me refer once more briefly to Clio. It is significant that she and her eight sisters were the daughters of Zeus (the Almighty) and Mnemosyne (Memory), for most of you, I suspect, will recall your history lessons at school as having consisted largely of pontification on the part of the teacher (or, at least of the author of the text book) and memorizing on the part of the pupil. Hence the eternal verities of the memorable history called *1066 and All That*. You may remember that the authors of that endearing and immortal book, having referred to 55 B.C., add in a footnote the words: For the other date see page 69, and continue to state that they originally intended to include four dates, but that, after visiting the Oxford and Cambridge match at Lords and several London Clubs, they had been forced to the conclusion that two of them were not memorable, and so they had had to be deleted from the text.

History—An Important and Vital Subject

If, as one must believe, history is an important and a vital subject, it cannot surely be merely what we remember. If it is no more than that, there is clearly no point in teaching or learning it, and the sooner we cut it out of an already overcrowded school time table the better. One might have supposed that *1066 and All That* was a history to end all that kind of history. Yet how far have we genuinely moved from that conception of it in schools? This is one of the questions raised in the Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 23 entitled *Teaching History*, an extremely able and stimulating survey and guide prepared by a group of H.M. Inspectors and published by H.M. Stationery Office in 1952. The compilers point out that teaching about the past is a constant element in the education of all societies and that, in England, history teaching is as old as teaching itself, the earliest text book being Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*. They emphasize the fact that in the Middle Ages history was conceived as world history, and that it was not until the reign of the first Elizabeth that,

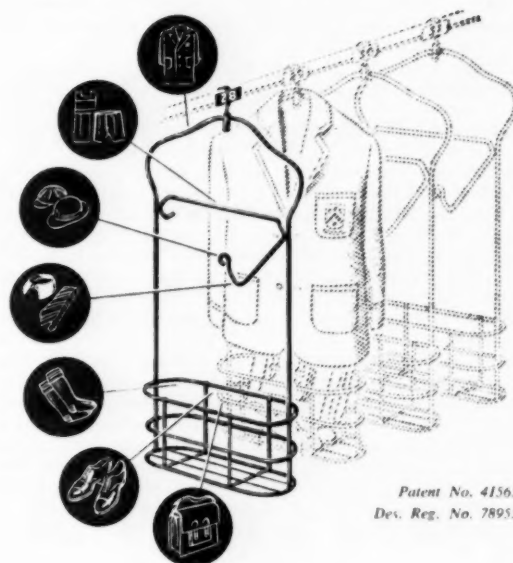
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with the emergence of a new national consciousness, national history also emerged. The pamphlet shows that it was not until the first half of the 19th century that, under the influence of Arnold at Rugby, history became a school subject, while in 1872 the School of Modern History was established at Oxford and in 1874 the Historical Tripos was founded at Cambridge.

In the middle of the century, too, history was taught in elementary schools, but it was confined to the older pupils in Standards IV, V and VI, and not more than three-quarters of an hour a week were devoted to it. The authors of the pamphlet add, rather charitably I think, that the subject was impeded in its development by the system of payment by results, under which history was not, of course, tested. In 1862 the Revised Code laid down a syllabus for Standards IV, V and VI which consisted of outlines of English history from earliest times to the death of George III. The syllabus was accompanied by a *Simple Catechism of the History of England adapted to the capacities of Young Children* and the extracts from it given in the pamphlet will astonish you.

At the turn of the century, as the pamphlet shows, both matter and approach began to change in emphasis, text books replacing the catechism, and trends and developments replacing the doings of good and bad kings. The new faith in democracy was also reflected in this change, as well as a passion for primitive man. Then came the First World War and the League of Nations and such an emphasis on the world as a whole as had not been seen since the close of the Middle Ages.

History in the Syllabus

It is at this point that the compilers of the pamphlet ask the pertinent question: How do present secondary school syllabuses look compared with those of the 19th century? Their answer is that, despite a wider content and the inclusion of much newly-discovered material, "they do not look nearly so different as do those of the younger children." A change in educational philosophy, they say, forbids us to suppose that Junior children are capable of comprehending the ideas laid down in the Revised Code of 1862. But, they add, at the secondary stage we find to-day that more remains of the traditional belief that there is knowledge of an objective kind which should be acquired by pupils in the study of history. Practice, of course, varies widely, but, generally speaking, topics, phases of development, and what not, are little more than variations on the old political themes. This is even more markedly true of grammar schools where, according to the pamphlet, the old sequence is still followed through the five-year course, at least in three-quarters of such schools in the country.

The conclusion of the writers of the pamphlet on this part of their enquiry is that the verdict of the last hundred years is that all boys and girls ought to be introduced to historical studies, but they find that no more time is devoted to it now than at the end of the 19th century. In other words, in spite of changes in content, and still more in teaching techniques, there has been little, if any, advance in the status of the subject, and certainly history has not succeeded in assuming a role comparable to that occupied in the older days by the classics. Nor, they add, in the modern school does it compare in status with that of any of the "three R's." Rather, they say, in the modern school is history on the defensive, and, indeed, it is not uncommon to find it abandoned in the fourth year in favour of some form of civics or social studies of a more or less contemporary kind.

This brings us to what I regard as the crucial point in this discussion. The authors of the pamphlet discover two underlying motives in the past and present practice of history teaching. They are the moral motive and the heritage motive. That is to say, it has been thought good that children should know something of the heroes of the

past, and good that they should be introduced to their heritage. But the question now arises, what sort of heroes and what sort of heritage? The determinism of Karl Marx and the scepticism of Lytton Strachey have combined to cast doubts on the older assessments of greatness and goodness and badness among men and women of the past and, indeed, on whether personal factors influence events at all. And, as to heritage, the impact of world events on the national story began to change the whole emphasis and to make the heritage something quite different. It was to be no longer a national heritage but an international heritage. The writer, at least in this country, who most obviously crystallized this change in outlook was H. G. Wells. *The Outline of History* was the pioneer of world histories. The school child appeared to have become the heir to all the ages—Ice Age, Stone Age, Iron Age, and all. It was a new kind of heritage indeed, entirely impersonal and utterly overwhelming, not only for the pupil but for the teacher. In terms of syllabus-making the new outlook offered the schools a monstrosity, and to make it work they had to resort to surveys, lines of development, topic treatments, pathways through time, centres of interest, projects, and what have you.

The "Patch" System

The weakness of these ways of escape from an impossible position is that they may so easily become ends in themselves and lose sight of the value of historical studies in providing the pupil with imaginative experience. It is this imaginative experience to which the authors of the Ministry's pamphlet refer as offering a third motive for the study of history beyond the two with which they have already dealt, namely, moral and heritage, and this leads them to favour what is called the "patch" system. Under this method a particular age or patch is studied more intensively in an attempt to get "under the skin" of that period and so help the pupils to enter into an entirely different atmosphere and point of view from that of the age in which they themselves live. In this way a series of patches would be closely cultivated during the school course and continuity would be maintained by means of connecting threads.

Thus the tendency of the pamphlet is to play down what might be called, for the want of a better term, the civic purposes of history, for they categorically say that "One of the great values of 'patch' history lies precisely in the fact that the patch being studied may have no obvious or continuous connection with any present-day institutions or preconceptions," while, they add, the evolutionary approach tends to start with these ideas and institutions which seem important to-day (e.g. democracy, transport or scientific knowledge) and to import them into the past, thus judging other ages by standards of value with which they may not have been primarily concerned. Yet, later on, the pamphlet discusses at some length the implications of neglecting these civic aspects in the structure of the history course. There they speak of the increasingly common practice of introducing at the end of the course, work centred on the contemporary local, national and international environment, whether it is called civics or social studies or current affairs.

At this point in the pamphlet there appears a statement of the greatest moment and significance. It is (and I quote it in full) as follows:

"It might almost appear that where a well-planned history and geography course is to be found in a school, the need for a special course in civics or contemporary social studies tends to disappear. At all events, where history and geography are felt to fall short of what is required, where it is felt advisable to introduce work under a new subject-heading in the fourth year, it is clearly highly important that the illusion should not be created that what is then being introduced is 'practical and useful' in contradistinction to what has come before. What has come before should have been gradually giving the



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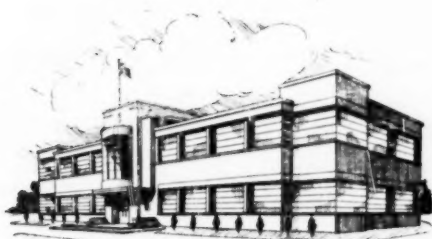
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child bearings, helping him to develop standards and a sense of values, as well as giving him the origins, principles and development of contemporary life. In the most important, though perhaps not in the most obvious, sense, it should have been both relevant and useful."

History and Citizenship

This pregnant statement gives me the point on which I want to enlarge during the few minutes that remain to me this morning. In my view, there is only one way to escape this illusion of the utility of civics in contradistinction to the futility of history, and that is to make them one; that is to say, to treat history in the only way that can give it any meaning, namely, as the background of citizenship and to regard civics as the complement and crown of the history course. This means, first, that we must never lose sight of the fact that the essential quality of history is its dynamism, that, as H. G. Wells once said, "there is no being but a constant becoming." Whatever else we do or do not do in school, therefore, we must never let a child leave in the belief that history stops at some given date, however recent that date may be. It means, secondly, that what we are concerned with here is the living past, which is not necessarily the recent past; the past, that is to say, which has shaped the present that has emerged from it.

This emphasis on the dynamic and emergent quality of history is not to exaggerate the light that history may throw upon the present or to assert that the contemporary world will necessarily learn how to grapple successfully with its problems by examining the failure of past generations to grapple with theirs. As a scientific statement, the saying that history repeats itself is of very dubious validity. But so far as it means, in the French phrase, the more it changes the more it is the same, the dictum embodies a profound truth. This is illustrated in a story which Plutarch tells of the Persian Wars, when the Persians invaded Greece in 480 B.C., the year of the battle of Salamis, which, like 1940, the year of the Battle of Britain, was one of the crucial moments of Western civilization. "Most of the Athenians," says Plutarch (according to North's translation), "did convey their aged fathers and mothers, their wives and little children, into the city of Troezen, where the Troezenians received them very lovingly and gently. For they gave orders that they should be entertained of the common charge, allowing them apiece two oboloes a day, and suffered the young children to gather fruit wheresoever they found it, and furthermore did hire schoolmasters to the charge of the Commonwealth to bring them up at school."

I do not need to point out the relevance of that ancient story to our own recent experience of evacuation and reception, for surely such an episode serves to emphasize the depth and antiquity of the roots of our civilization, and the prevalence, despite the passage of nearly twenty-five centuries, of the humane spirit of the people who first gave it recognizable shape. Nor need I remind you that Greek humanism was based on the assumption that all true education implied social and political education, since the good life was for them, as it should be for us, inconceivable without good citizenship.

Now, no one, presumably, will deny that one of the main purposes of any school must be to help its pupils eventually to become good citizens. This purpose is more urgent to-day than in any previous period of our educational history, for surely the last four decades of disaster should have taught us that we shall look in vain for a true and creative citizenship in the adult world of to-morrow unless we determine to lay its foundations in the schools of to-day. But citizenship cannot be taught in a vacuum. Indeed, in a certain sense it cannot be taught at all. But what we can and must do is to create an atmosphere conducive to its growth. Admittedly, there is a great deal of factual material in all branches of the study of citizenship, but any attempt to present it effectively must be abortive in the absence of

two precedent conditions. The first is that a growing sense of citizenship must be inherent in the community life of the school. The second is that the wider citizenship of the national community, of the Commonwealth and of the world at large must begin with a study and understanding of the local community.

As to the first of these precedent conditions, it is idle to suppose that we can create a vivid sense of the society outside the school unless we first make the school conscious of itself as a society, for the school is, in some respects at least, a microcosm of the larger world beyond its walls. Citizenship, in other words, is not a compartment of knowledge but something which must pervade the whole of school life and learning. Only if it is so conceived can a school hope to create the conditions under which the attitudes and loyalties fostered in smaller and more familiar groupings may expand over wider fields up to and beyond the national community. Of course, any society, by its very nature, educates its members, whether it is conscious of purpose and direction or not. What I am urging here is that the school as a society should become aware of that purpose and direction. Such awareness, I submit, is not achieved by thinking of the school merely as an institution for the pursuit of academic excellence, by which I mean the study of subjects along parallel lines which never converge even to the point of demonstrating the unity of knowledge, let alone to that of emphasizing the relevance of it all to the social structure. Please don't misunderstand me. I would be the last person, being what I am, to urge courses which might have the effect of lowering genuine academic standards. But I would remind you that it was by no means part of the academic tradition of our more ancient schools that they should think of themselves as cloistered communities, segregated from the social milieu from which their pupils came, shutting themselves up in watertight compartments called subjects, and making their curriculum not a stream in motion but a stagnant pool.

Education for Citizenship

The second precedent condition to which I have referred is a corollary of the first. The difficulty which faces a democratic society in the Machine Age is how to make itself at the same time efficient and free. It can do this only if it learns to keep step with technological progress without allowing liberty to be overwhelmed by the centralizing and dehumanizing tendencies of the techniques it is bound to adopt if it is to live. To this extent, education for citizenship is no less a function of a modern democracy than it was twenty-two centuries ago in the polity of Aristotle, who said, as you may remember, that the state exists not merely to make life possible but to make life good. If, then, the school society is to be truly educative in this sense, it must become aware of the society which creates it and which it is intended to serve. And it is precisely here that history as the background of citizenship comes in. For the approach through the local community has both a logical and a historical justification. Logically, the widening circle of citizenship moves from the neighbourhood through the nation-state to the world of states. Historically, states have been created by the fusion or integration of local and regional communities, and if there is ever to be an effective world organization it will be by some sort of federation of nation states. So in following the order of social grouping, the pupil will be applying what he should have learned in his history lessons.

Thus, while I agree with what is said in the Ministry's pamphlet about the importance of imaginative experience, I think it should not be beyond our combined wit to achieve it through the civic approach to history teaching. And, even if I did not believe that that approach is intrinsically the right one, I should still say that it was necessary because it is even truer now than it was when H. G. Wells said it some years ago that we are committed

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to a race between education and catastrophe. If we do not train the runners in the schools eventually to win that race for world peace, we are lost and everything else is vanity.

I am speaking here, of course, of the secondary stage of schooling. The question of history teaching at the primary (i.e. junior) stage is a fascinating one which I wish I had time to discuss. But it raises quite different problems which are not concerned with citizenship in the sense in which I am speaking of it here. As to the secondary stage, doubtless we hold differing views, private or public, about equality of opportunity, parity of esteem, multilateralism, comprehensiveness, and other latter-day shibboleths (which, I hope, is not too strong a word for them). But there is at least one need as I hope we shall all agree, that is common to all senior pupils, in whatever kind of school they may be, and that is to learn how to play their part as citizens of the future. For all such pupils, except the gifted few, there is a yawning gap between the age of school-leaving and that at which they will enter on the period of full citizenship; the only difference among them lies in the width of the gap. If history is to help them to bridge that gap without disaster, we have not only to make a careful selection of the material but develop a new technique of study which will discredit forever the stupid and wasteful criterion of memorability and replace it by an active method of learning. Such a technique should help the adolescent to maintain his interest in the subject when schooldays are over and thus offer him some hope of overcoming the dull passivity forced upon him by the mechanization of modern life.

Such a vitalized study of history is the true ground from which we may move not only towards a creative citizenship in the local and national community but also towards international understanding and the realization of a world society. We live in an age of ferment and revolution, in which we have lost the ancient unities which the Greeks, the Romans and the early Christian Church bequeathed to us—the unity of culture, the unity of law, and the unity of mankind. On these simple foundations we have erected a monstrous technological superstructure which constantly threatens the safety of the whole edifice. Our survival, I assert, depends on our ability to recognize the living past, ancient though it may be, to re-unite morals and politics, to restore humanism to science, to revitalize the Rule of Law in the world at large, and to acknowledge the brotherhood of man. And these things we shall not achieve without a proper study of history in school and beyond, for as G. K. Chesterton once so truly and finely said: "To-morrow is a Gorgon at which we dare not look save through the shining shield of yesterday lest we be turned to stone."

Agricultural Apprenticeship Scheme

The formation is announced of the first twelve district apprenticeship committees which are to administer the Agricultural Apprenticeship Scheme. They have been set up in Flintshire, Merionethshire, Montgomeryshire, Hertfordshire, Suffolk, Derbyshire, Kent, Berkshire, Essex, Oxfordshire, Yorkshire (North Riding) and Warwickshire.

Each consists of eight members—four employers and two representatives from each of the two workers' unions—and these, with the aid of the local education authorities will direct the working of the scheme in their respective areas under the general supervision of the Agricultural Apprenticeship Council in London.

An official of the council anticipates that the committees will start work at once and that it will not be long before the first apprentices are accepted and articulated.

District committees in other counties are likely to follow.

The number of Teachers in Hungarian schools has increased this year by more than 3,000 says a Hungarian report. Of these, 1,360 who have been through colleges and more than 300 university graduates started teaching last month.

Independent Schools

A proper place in our Educational System for them says Minister of Education

"I believe that there is a proper place in our educational system for the independent school, whether it be 'Public' or 'Preparatory,'" said Miss Florence Horsbrugh, the Minister of Education, when addressing the Annual Conference of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools at Oxford.

Miss Horsbrugh said that some people, while they may not disbelieve in the devotion of preparatory schools to education, certainly disparaged the contribution these schools could make to its advancement. She thought that the part of the pamphlet "Challenge to Britain" dealing with education should be studied from the educational point of view, leaving out entirely any party political bias. This pamphlet said that the existence of a small number of fee-paying "prep" schools and "public" schools with small classes and high social prestige, alongside our overcrowded and under-staffed free system of education, made a mockery of the ideal of equality of opportunity. The pamphlet did not propose to abolish fee-paying schools in the first instance, but its long-term plan was to take over the best of the "public" schools and independent day schools. The pamphlet added that the large number of private schools which provide only a travesty of education would be dealt with.

The Minister said that of course there were bad schools but suggested that such a sweeping statement might have been qualified by adding that a very large number of independent schools, having been inspected by H.M. Inspectors, had been recognized as efficient. She found it difficult to believe that because about half-a-million children were being educated at their parents' expense in independent schools a mockery was being made of the equal opportunities being offered free to six million boys and girls in the 29,000 schools grant-aided from public funds. She did not consider that even the authors of the pamphlet "Challenge to Britain" themselves believed that preparatory boarding schools provided "only a travesty of education." Anyone who knew anything about "prep" schools knew also that such a generalization was false. The writers of the pamphlets were entitled to their opinions; she merely wished to disassociate herself from them and to assure the Conference that she did not agree with them.

Miss Horsbrugh said that the 1944 Act envisaged the continued independence of the independent schools, but she did not rest her belief that there was a proper place in our educational system for the independent school merely upon statutory provisions. She based it upon the value of what these schools could give and upon the desirability of permitting variety rather than enforcing uniformity in our educational system.

Independent Schools must take up Challenge

These beliefs were now challenged and the independent schools must take up the challenge and prove their worth in order to retain support.

"Your schools are facing a remarkable situation," continued the Minister. "Never before, I should imagine, have your fees been higher than they are now. And yet never before have you found more parents prepared to pay them. How long this state of things will last I do not know, but I am quite sure that the future of preparatory schools will largely depend on two things: first, the stability and permanence that they can create for themselves; and second, the sense of responsibility and self-reliance they can develop in their boys.

As to the first, she supposed that the future of the schools depended on their success in attracting the custom of the relatively small proportion of parents who were both able and willing to pay the comparatively high fees they charged.

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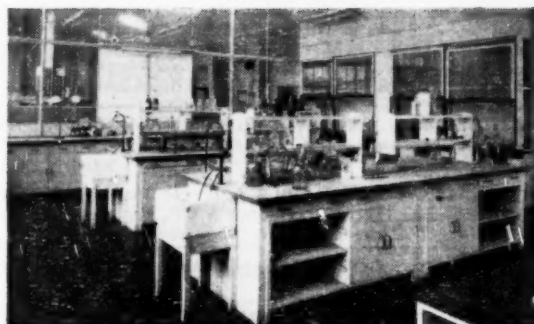
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That willingness must be related very largely to the confidence which the schools could inspire.

On the second point, Miss Horsbrugh said that she did not suggest that the need of opportunities of training boys to exercise responsibility and self-reliance had escaped their notice, but she was interested in how these opportunities were going to be provided. Many 'prep' schools provided plenty of such opportunities, especially for the older boys, out of working hours, and she wondered whether more could not be done to give the 'juniors' and the 'middles' rather more scope for the exercise and development, outside the classroom, of the qualities which she had mentioned. It was inside the classroom that there was room for giving all boys more chances than many of them get to build up self-confidence, self-reliance and self-help."

Danger from Welfare State

The Minister explained that she did not use these words in their selfish sense. Children were natural egoists and it was not their self-interest that needed to be stimulated. But the more she saw of our educational system the more impressed she was by the great danger with which the Welfare State threatened our children.

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Preparatory schools, continued Miss Horsbrugh, were in a most favourable position to give practical effect to the principles she had ventured to enumerate. She was not urging the preparation of a corps d'elite or the production of a gang of little fuhrers. What she had in mind was the need to give even young boys the chance to do things for themselves without detailed guidance or supervision so that they could have the thrill and satisfaction of exercising or achieving something on their own.

British Standard for Projector Spools

The British Standards Institution has recently issued two comprehensive standards for projector spools for 16 mm. and 8 mm. cinematograph film (B.S. 2013 and B.S. 2014 respectively), which supersede the short schedules of dimensions included in B.S. 677, "Motion picture film."

The standard for 16 mm. spools covers seven sizes of spools from 50-ft. to 2,000-ft. capacity, and that for 8 mm. spools covers four sizes from 50-ft. to 400-ft. capacity.

The standards specify all the essential dimensions, including the outside and core diameters, overall width and width between flanges, spindle mounting and drive, and those which ensure accuracy of running. For the larger 16mm. spools a maximum weight is specified in order that these spools when loaded and packaged may conveniently comply with postal regulations.

In preparing these standards, care has been taken to avoid any unnecessary restriction to the freedom of design, but such essential requirements are included as will ensure that the spools are well constructed and will give satisfactory service. They deal with such matters as the attachment of the flanges to the hub and the accuracy of assembly, the ribbing of the flanges, the spindle clamping face, method of film attachment with its associated finger access holes, lightening holes and general finish.

The material is not specified as it is intended that the specifications should apply both to metal spools and to spools of non-metallic materials, such as plastics.

It may not be possible for spool manufacturers to meet immediately all of the provisions of these new standards, but it is hoped that their acceptance by the industry will encourage the general adoption of a limited number of spools, thus facilitating economic production, and will ensure absolute interchangeability and remove any difficulties or irritations which may in the past have been associated with sub-standard spools.

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C.G.A. 553—Wild Flowers of Meadow and Stream.—Another in the Nature in Colour series, and a companion to "Wild Flowers of the Wood and Hedgerow." This grouping of plants according to habitat is much more useful to teachers than the colour grouping so frequently met with in textbooks, for the modern trend in Nature Study is to pay increasingly more attention to the influence of habitat and climate on plant and animal life.

It is evident that the pictures selected are not the work of one photographer; some are outstandingly good, others useful for the purpose for which they were originally intended. Photographs embracing a mass of dozens or hundreds of flowers such as the Marsh Marigold and Lesser Celandine included here, are beautiful but not very instructive; whereas the close-ups of the Fritillary, Cowslip, Early Purple Orchis, Meadow Cranesbill, Ragwort, and Monkey Flower, leave nothing to be desired. Again one wonders why the rare, almost white variety, of the Ragged Robin is figured—this is a gem to the enthusiast—but surely the well-known common red variety is the typical specimen to be shown to beginners. If we seem too critical it is because we are aware of the value of well produced strips of this kind. 24 frames.

C.G.A. 598—Village Life in Northern Nigeria.—The third in the Geography in Colour series intended for primary schools, to give a more detailed and first-hand account of life and customs of people than can be obtained from a regional survey. The photographs in this strip were taken by the author, A. W. Barton of University College, Ibadan. Owing to the variation in ways of living due to tribal differences, photographs have been taken at many different places to present a truer record of village life, but particular reference to the Plateau area has been omitted as outside the scope of this strip. 17 frames are given to village life and 7 to town. That most of the photographs were taken in the dry season will be obvious when they are projected—colour again emphasizes the climatic condition; the one picture of a rain storm in progress will serve to emphasize there is a rainy season too.

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No. 6082—Dumbo and Bambi.—Two further titles in the "Stills from the Films" series. These delightful Walt Disney studies are on one strip so that we may compare two very different themes. Dumbo is pure entertainment and no one will quarrel with the selection of stills of this aspect of circus life—a strip very suitable for the infant school. But Bambi will be useful for more than one occasion, especially in the primary school. Here is a story woven from everyday occurrences in a North American forest, an entertaining introduction to a project on this theme. Seasonal changes, natural enemies, unforseen dangers such as forest fires all have their place. There are chances here to note pathos, love and parental care, joy of living and struggle for existence. The colour is good and projects well. 51 frames.

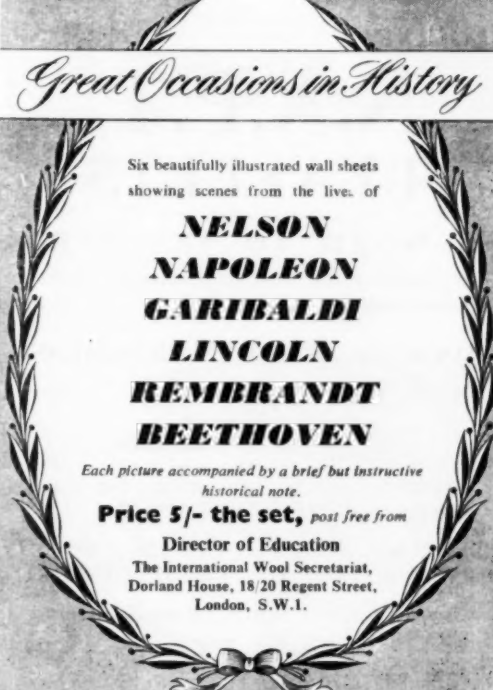
No. 6068—The Little Red Hen.—Designed for use in infant schools but equally suitable for backward readers in the lower primary school. The drawings are simple, bold and colourful. The captions are in white script on a black background at the base of each picture and in no way detract from the picture itself. The whole of the well-known

story is covered in 24 frames; one has no doubt that the moral will be conveniently impressed with such a wealth of pictures.

No. 5065—Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme.—An additional title in the series of strips based on the plays of Moliere, again compiled by Dr. J. T. Stoker, Lecturer in French at Aberdeen University, and intended mainly for use in grammar and secondary schools, particularly those who are studying the play in connection with the General Certificate Examination. The strip has two parts: details of the original production and high-lights of the play. The illustrations are taken from a number of productions from different centuries to show various interpretations for comparison—a mental exercise for the student. Dr. Stoker is most helpful in providing practical suggestions in the use of the strip and the 35 page script has very full notes. The numbers of the Act and Scene appear on each frame on the side opposite to the frame numbers—an additional visual help. 48 frames.

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All Things Bright and Beautiful.—This strip is intended for the very young—the nursery and infant classes—to enhance their enjoyment and increase their understanding of the hymn. The clear colour illustrations by Olive Openshaw are simple enough to provoke discussion and to help in the later memorizing of the words. Each of the six verses has its appropriate frames and the frame for the chorus is repeated at each stage. For the primary school child the whole strip may be used as an item in a service of worship. The words and music are printed on a sheet provided with the strip. Certainly a strip to help the children to appreciate what they are singing.



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BOOK NOTES

The Livelihood of Man, by Honor Croome, B.Sc.Econ. and Gordon King, B.Sc.Econ., M.Com. (Christophers.)

No small part of the difficulty that the science of economics presents to the common man is due to the unwillingness or the inability of the economist to explain his concepts simply and intelligibly. If every economist would put himself through a course of Sir Ernest Gowers' "Plain Words" before expressing his theories or conclusions in print, this so-called "dismal science" would lose some of its forbidding complexity. This new introduction to economics for fifth and lower sixth forms is to be welcomed, therefore, if only by reason of its simplicity of expression. It is a model of lucidity, born partly of an ability to write clear, direct English and partly of the power to select significantly. One feels that the two authors, one an ex-lecturer at the London School of Economics, the other a master in a grammar school, have together achieved a combination of theory and its practical application which makes their book anything but dismal. Nor do they fall into the common error of beginning simply only to plunge the student in the second or third chapter well out of his depth. The thorough grounding in theory is made to grow out of a study of existing economic conditions in Britain and the modern world generally. There is a modesty about these two economists, too, which is rare in this field of study. They admit ruefully that successful application is more difficult than mere theory, and urge the teacher that he has a vital

part to play in bringing home to his students how theory does, and sometimes does not, work out in practice. There is a useful glossary of terms, a further reading list and a large number of questions from past G.C.E. and professional bodies' examination papers. (In this last connection, the authors might note for a future edition that the Welsh Joint Education Committee is not a committee of the University of Wales.)—C.

The Family (Addresses at the British National Conference on Social Work). (National Council of Social Service, 3s. 6d. net.)

The theme of this year's Conference on Social Work was well chosen. The unit of the family, at its strongest perhaps in the nineteenth century, is today threatened from many directions, particularly in the matter of the education and upbringing of children. So anxious are we that every child shall have what we consider to be the best start in the world that we are often too ready to remove from the family any part of its responsibility we consider it unfit to bear. The cohesion, the survival even, of the family unit depends on mutual responsibility—each for all, and all for each. Psychologists are never tired of telling us that delinquency, maladjustment, neuroses and other disturbances can very frequently be traced to some breakdown in family relationship. There can, therefore, be no more fruitful field for social work than in the promotion and preservation of a smooth-working family unit. In this report are presented notes and synopses of addresses and discussion among a distinguished gathering of experts. They make most instructive and encouraging reading: problems are clearly stated and courageously tackled. Social workers who were not able to attend the conference will find this printed record of the greatest service in keeping in touch with what is being thought and said in this important field.—C.

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Swimming and Swimming Strokes, by Max Madders. (Educ. Productions Ltd., 10s. 6d.)

An authoritative handbook dealing with all aspects of the sport. The author, who is a lecturer in Physical Education at Birmingham University, has based his book on experience gained as tutor in charge of the Amateur Swimming Association's advanced training courses for selected competitive swimmers and it is written in collaboration with the Association's publicity committee. The different strokes are analysed in detail and the reader is taken step by step through the various phases of each. There are also chapters on anatomy and physiology in relation to swimming gymnastics, massage, of coating, graded swimming tests, and organization of a swimming gala. Freely illustrated. A useful and comprehensive book for the serious student of swimming.

Careers for Boys, by J. G. Watterson, B.A. (Ward Lock and Co., 12s. 6d.)

Choosing a career is an important event in a boy's life, for on it will depend to a great extent his future success and happiness. In years gone by it was often a haphazard business with very little guidance for the boy on leaving school, but, happily, with the coming of careers masters and youth employment officers, advice and information is now freely available to both boys and their parents as to appropriate and suitable careers. All interested and concerned with boys entering upon their business life will, we are sure, find this new book by Mr. Watterson of great value. Sub-titled "A Guide to the Choice of a Profession" it deals in detail in its 250 pages with eighty-five different professions, and is illustrated with seventeen full page plates. A reference book that should be in the library of every boy's school and in every youth employment office.

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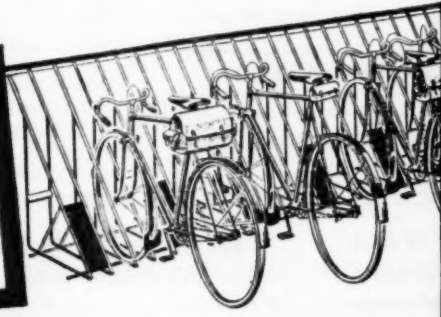
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Inquiry into Health Visiting

Ministers Appoint Working Party

The Ministers of Health and Education and the Secretary of State for Scotland have appointed a working party to advise on the proper field of work and the recruitment and training of health visitors in the National Health Service and School Health Service.

The Chairman of the working party will be Sir Wilson Jameson, M.D., F.R.C.P.

Its members are: Dr. A. Beauchamp, M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., M.B., Ch.B. (City of Birmingham Executive Council); Alderman Mrs. K. Chambers, C.B.E., LL.D., J.P. (Bradford City Council and Executive Council); Miss E. G. Hims-worth, R.G.N., S.C.M. (Nursing Supervisor for Midlothian and Peebles); Miss E. Stephenson, S.R.N., S.C.M. (Chief Nursing Officer, Newcastle-upon-Tyne); Dr. J. F. Warin, M.D., D.P.H. (Medical Officer of Health and School Medical Officer, City of Oxford).

The working party will be advised by a Steering Committee, also under the Chairmanship of Sir Wilson Jameson, on which the Government Departments concerned will be represented. It will also represent the English and Scottish Associations of local authorities concerned and the London County Council; the Welsh Joint Education Committee and the Association of Education Committees; the Royal Sanitary Institute and the Standing Conference of Health Visitor Training Centres approved by the Minister of Health. It will also have the expert advice on social workers and their training of Miss Eileen Younghusband, M.B.E., J.P., and Professor R. M. Titmuss.

Health visitors are qualified nurses with extra training in midwifery, in public health and in the social services who, in the past, have been mainly concerned with advising mothers on their health and the health of their young children. The National Health Service Acts, however, envisaged a wider role for the health visitor covering the health of the whole family. Regulations made under the Education Acts in England and Wales also require that (save in certain specified cases) school nurses shall have the health visitors' qualification. The inquiry is expected to deal with the general position of the health visitor in these services in the light of experience now gained (including for example, ways in which she might co-operate with the family doctor and the hospitals) but not with services with which the appointing Ministers are not directly concerned.

The Joint Secretaries to the Inquiry are Mr. R. Pronger and Miss M. H. Cook, S.R.N. (Ministry of Health, Chesham House, Regent Street).

British Books in Mauritius & East Africa

The British Council has sent an exhibition of over 1,000 books and 100 periodicals to Mauritius for showing in October. Most of the books are inexpensive editions, reprints and books in series and there are also sections on education including the teaching of English and children's books. The permanent collection "English Books, 1480-1940" compiled for the Council by Mr. Douglas Cleverdon and which has already been shown in many parts of the world, will be shown with the new books. The exhibition is illustrated by photographs and by cut-outs of illustrations to the children's books.

The new books and "English Books, 1480-1940" will be shown later on Council premises in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanganyika and Mombasa, Kenya.

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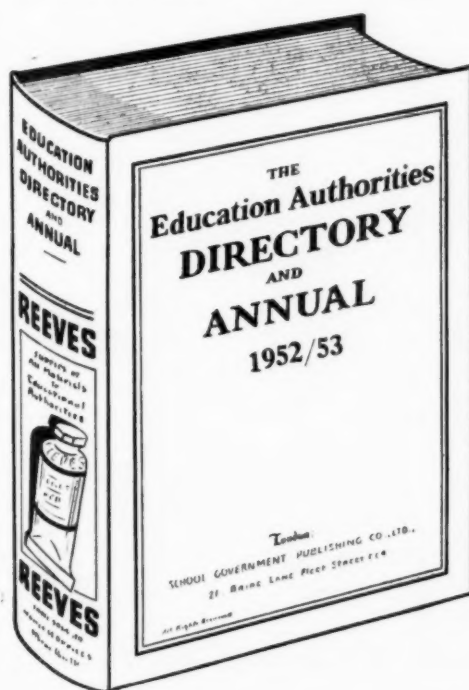
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